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THE CANADIAN GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY

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popular in character, easily read, well illustrated and educational to the young, as well as informative to the adult.

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The Society has no political or other sectional associations, and is responsible only to its members. All money received is used in producing the Canadian Geographical Journal and in carrying on such other activities for the advancement of geographical knowledge as funds of the Society may permit.

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SPECIAL REPRESENTATIVES:

Ontario and Quebec: F. A. DALLYN
Toronto office — 21 King Street, E.
(Tel. EL. 2863)

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COVER SUBJECT:—*The monument in St. Boniface, Manitoba, to La Vérendrye, pioneer who in 1737 established Fort Rouge at the forks of the Red and Assiniboine Rivers, now in the city of Winnipeg. Pierre Gaultier de Varennes, Sieur de la Vérendrye, born in 1685, was the only great explorer of Canada whose birth-place was Canada. The exploratory journeys of La Vérendrye and his sons, in their search for the western sea, covered much of the southern half of Manitoba and the country to the south along the Missouri River.*

Manitoba Travel and Publicity Bureau photo

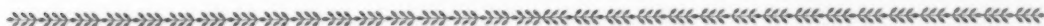
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Eighty Years of Foreign Trade

by D. H. FULLERTON

Photos and charts courtesy Foreign Trade

IN THE EIGHTY YEARS since the original provinces of Canada became a confederation, the foreign trade of Canada has shown an amazing growth. Between July 1st, 1867, and June 30th, 1868, Canada's imports and exports totalled \$120,000,000, or \$34 for every man, woman and child in the country. In the calendar year 1946, total Canadian trade was valued at \$4,240,000,000, which is eleven times as great on a per capita basis, and thirty-seven times as great in actual dollar value.

Stated another way, the growth of Canada as a world trader is emphasized by the fact that she is now the third ranking country of the world in the volume of goods that crosses her borders annually, with only the trade of the United States and the United Kingdom on a larger scale. Canada's twelve million people, one-half of one per cent of the world's population, account for seven per cent of world trade.

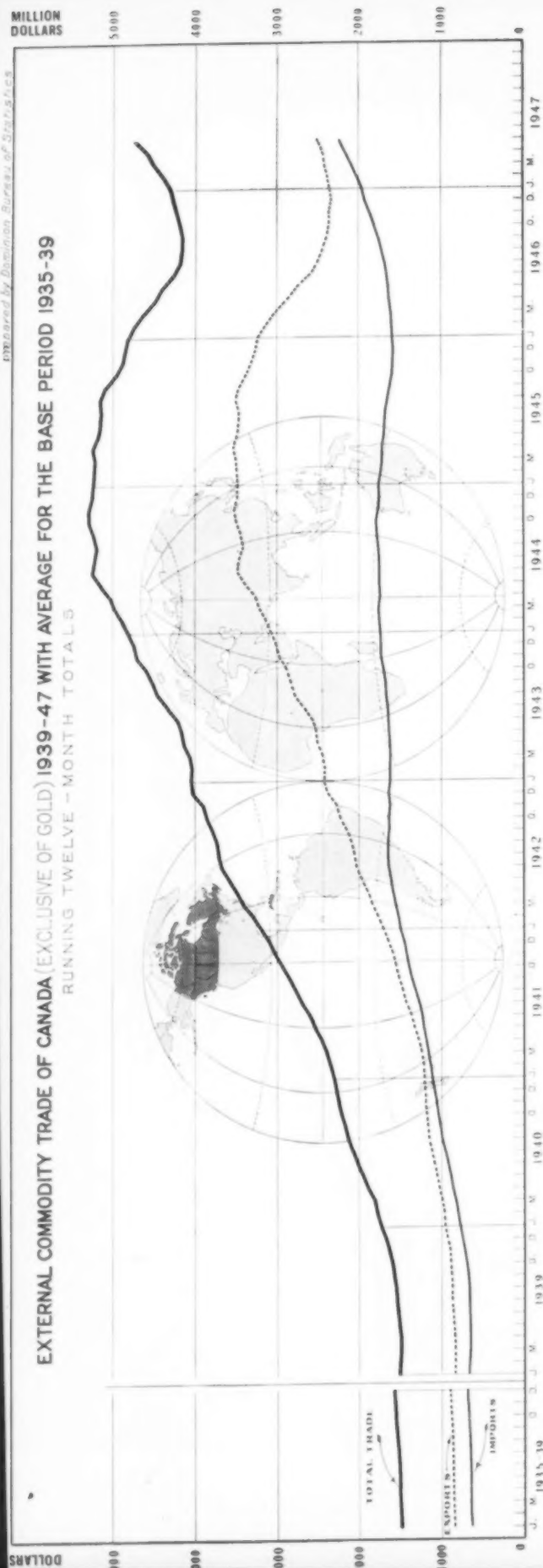
No one will deny that the statistical record is impressive, but what exactly do these figures mean? How has it come about that Canada, with its relatively small population, is involved to such an extent in world trade? What type of goods do Canadians buy and sell in foreign markets? With what countries is Canadian trade carried on? What proportion of Canadian production is consumed abroad? What are the advantages or disadvantages of a large concentration of resources in foreign trade? An anniversary is a good time to take stock, and these and other questions come instinctively to mind when one begins to examine closely the role of Canada as a world trader.

An analysis of a country's foreign trade naturally resolves itself into two parts, the study of the goods which the country sells abroad, its exports, and the goods it buys





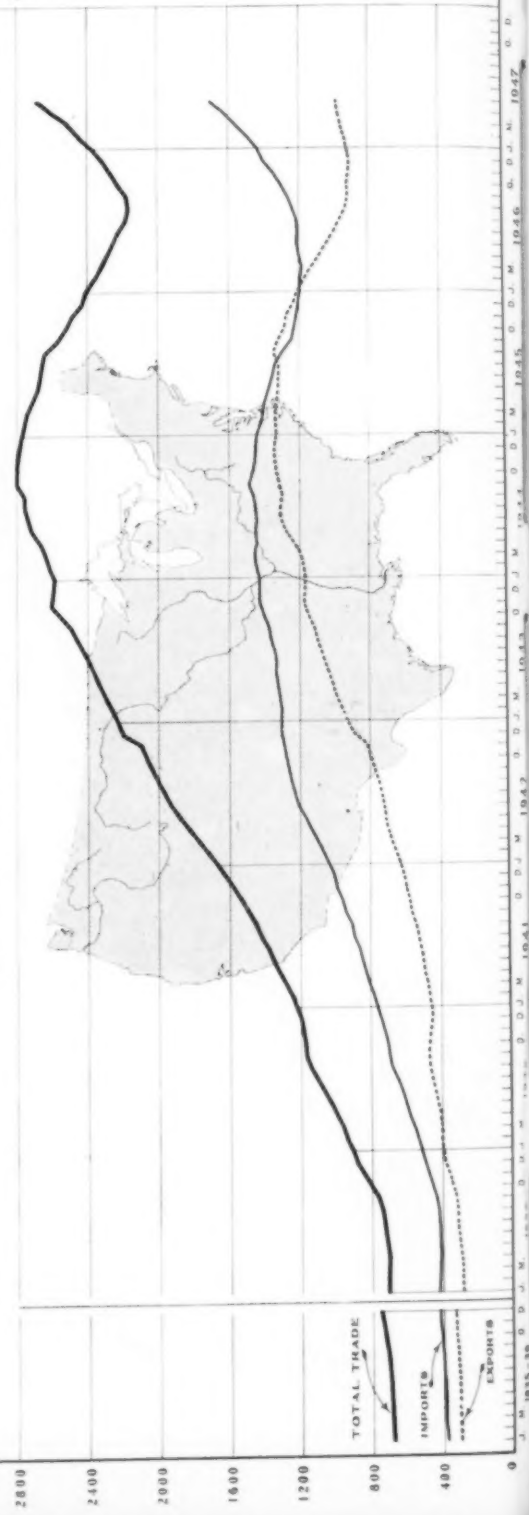
Indian tea plantations in the vicinity of Darjeeling, high in the Himalayas. Although tea was in twentieth position among Canadian imports in 1945, and purchases were more than twice those of coffee, there has been a decline in consumption in this country. Imports from India were valued at \$6,813,000 in 1946, and relatively small quantities were obtained from Ceylon and China.



MILLION DOLLARS

CANADIAN TRADE WITH UNITED STATES, 1939-47 WITH AVERAGE FOR THE BASE PERIOD, 1935-39

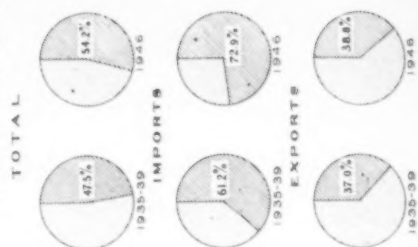
Running Twelve-Month Totals



Prepared by Dominion Bureau of Statistics

RELATIVE PROPORTIONS OF TRADE WITH UNITED STATES TO TOTAL CANADIAN TRADE

AVERAGE FOR THE BASE PERIOD 1935-39
 COMPARED WITH
 LATEST COMPLETED CALENDAR YEAR



from other countries, its imports. The argument over which comes first in importance provokes the same kind of discussion that centres about the prior appearance of the hen or the egg. Actually it is not of much relevance at the moment to decide whether a country sells goods abroad and then buys foreign goods with the proceeds, or whether its need of foreign goods forces it to sell goods to other countries to obtain them. The interdependence of exports and imports warrants the assertion that both reasons are correct, although their relative importance may vary from time to time and from country to country.

Import Trade

In considering first the reasons why Canadians import goods from other countries, undoubtedly the most striking feature is the contrast between the assets and the liabilities in the balance sheet of Canadian natural resources. Although Mother Nature endowed Canada richly with forests, fisheries, minerals, water power, and arable land in abundance, she displayed a capriciousness that matched her indulgence. Few countries have achieved a high standard of living without building up a manufacturing industry, the successful growth of which generally depends on the close proximity, and on the availability at reasonable prices, of coal and iron. Canada has enough coal reserves to last for 2,700 years at present rates of consumption, yet the main Canadian reserves happen to be located in the easternmost part of Nova Scotia and in Western Canada, raising transportation costs to very high levels. Iron ore has only recently been mined in quantities large enough to meet Canadian demand. Another important factor in modern industry is petroleum. Proved Canadian oil reserves at present are quite inadequate to satisfy the increasing demand inside the country and, like the coal reserves, are remote from the main areas of consumption. In these three basic commodities, the Canadian lack of strategically placed resources has required heavy imports from abroad, principally from the United States.

In addition to the absence or maldistribu-

tion of resources mentioned above, a handicap which Canada shares with other countries in the north temperate and sub-arctic zones is the inability to grow tropical food-stuffs, cotton, fibres and similar products that can only be produced in a warmer climate. Our ancestors of a century and more ago were forced to limit their consumption of imported foods to those which kept well in hot climates for long periods, and which could be shipped without danger of decay. Their food and beverage imports seldom went beyond such items as dried fruits, tea, sugar, wines and spices. Today our appetites are no longer restricted by the physical limitations that existed then. Modern methods of refrigeration in transporting goods from the tropics, the diversification of our dietary habits, and our rising standard of living have greatly changed our consumption pattern. Canadians have become accustomed to oranges and grapefruit, bananas and peanuts, fresh vegetables in the winter, cocoa and chocolate, in addition to all the foods and beverages which figured so prominently in trade and exploration in the past. Imported cottons and woollens have replaced homespun as the principal component of our clothing. The rapidity of the growth of our consumption of products which cannot be grown in Canada is seldom appreciated, but it does indicate support for the generally held belief that a rise in the standard of living of a country is accompanied by a tendency to consume more exotic products. Whatever the basis for this change in our habits, it is evident that these foreign goods and raw materials have become an increasingly essential part of our existence.

Apart from these physical reasons which have resulted in a growing Canadian dependence upon foreign goods is the basic fact that there are certain commodities which can be produced in other countries cheaper than they can be made in Canada. If these foreign goods can be obtained by exchanging for them goods which Canada can produce cheaply, then both parties to the exchange derive benefit. By what is called multilateral or many-sided trade,

these exchanges between nations can be placed on the same basis as exchanges which take place in everyday domestic business. In the division of labour inside a country a man exchanges his goods or services for money with which he can buy what he wants. Under conditions of unrestricted multilateral trade, a country can use the foreign exchange it receives from one country to buy goods in another.

In thinking of imports from the Canadian point of view it must never be forgotten that trade is a two-way street. If Canadians do not buy goods from abroad, sales of Canadian goods to other countries cannot be maintained.

Export Trade

The reasons behind the growth of Canadian export trade are equally logical and compelling; this side of the story has been given most prominence of late years, for it is by now almost a commonplace that export trade is vital to Canadian prosperity.

The first point that can be made about exports is that they have enabled Canadians to buy goods from abroad. It is true that a country may for a time buy foreign goods on credit, just as many people can and do charge goods at a store. In the end, however, the goods must be paid for, or the debt defaulted and the credit standing damaged or destroyed. The only way a creditor country ultimately can be paid is with shipments of goods it can use, or with an internationally acceptable currency enabling it to buy goods elsewhere. This currency may be foreign exchange received from sales to other countries or gold.

To state that the need of Canada for imports has been one of the chief reasons behind the development of Canadian export industries, however, would be to place an entirely unrealistic emphasis on the economic forces which stimulated this development. Wheat was grown, nickel was mined and lumber was cut in large quantities because profitable markets existed abroad for these products. That the farmer, the miner, the lumberman was enabled thereby to purchase imported commodities, necessary though

they were to his well-being, bore little causal relationship to the expansion that occurred in these industries.

Nevertheless, the existence of foreign markets for Canadian goods does not by itself yield an entirely adequate explanation for either the growth or the present importance to Canada of export trade. The products which were in greatest demand abroad could be produced cheaply only by the intensive exploitation and development of Canada's main natural resources. Once the capital investment had been made, the heavy fixed charges could be carried and economical production maintained only if the plant, equipment and transportation facilities were used to capacity. To appreciate this point fully it is necessary to look at the commodities making up the principal exports from Canada since Confederation.

Although one of the greatest changes since Confederation in the internal structure of the Canadian economy has been the growth of a large-scale manufacturing industry, a similar change has not taken place in the content of Canadian export trade. In 1946, as in 1867, most of the principal exports from Canada were products of her great primary industries—agriculture, forestry, mining and fishing. The manufacturing content in these primary products is not large, since the commodities are generally shipped out of the country in their natural state or after some processing of a minor nature. It is true that there has been a larger manufacturing element in recent years; the example might be cited of the increasing proportion of Canadian wheat exported as flour, and the increasing importance of newsprint paper in relation to the overall production of forest products. Nevertheless, the farmer and the lumberman are still the key figures in these industries, and the final product may hardly be considered a "manufacture" in the same sense as a clock, a washing machine or a telephone.

At Confederation lumber, fish, cheese, meat, grain and furs were among the principal exports from Canada. They are all still important exports today. In the intervening



New orchard in the South Thompson Valley, near Kamloops, British Columbia; the province is expected to harvest a crop of 7,700,000 boxes of apples this year. This compares with crops of 9,892,000 boxes in 1946, of 5,748,000 in 1945 and of 8,750,000 in 1944. Exports from British Columbia in 1945 totalled 834,158 boxes, of which 720,000 boxes went to the United Kingdom, 22,000 to South American countries and 42,000 to the United States. The peak was achieved in 1944, when a total of 3,100,000 boxes of British Columbia apples were shipped, the majority going to the United States. Total fruit exports in 1945 were valued at around \$14,000,000.

N.F.B. photo

period other primary products have become prominent, with wheat and newsprint forming the two most important single exports since the turn of the century, and the expansion of the mining industry furnishing other exportable primary products.

Diverse in nature as these primary products are, most of them have one thing in common: their production on a large scale has required a heavy investment in capital goods, and continued low cost production has only been possible with maximum use of this investment. Wheat from the Prairie Provinces of Canada can be produced at a reasonable price and sold in the markets of the world not only because of the excellence of the soil and the ability and industry of the farmer, but because of the investment in agricultural machinery, farm and elevator storage space, and in the railroad trains and ships which carry the grain the vast distances between the producer and the foreign consumer. The lumbering and pulp and paper industry has required similar heavy investment in plant, electric power development and transportation equipment; with the pushing back of the frontiers, the need for lumber and paper has meant even greater distances to be covered, new railroads and highways to be built and new communities to be carved out of the wilderness. The mining industry has a large fixed investment in machinery, and the principal sources of minerals are, in the main, distant from the populated areas, requiring further construction of transportation facilities. If all this plant and equipment is to be used economically, a high level of activity must be maintained. The amount of newsprint, fish, wheat, nickel and lumber that can be used by twelve million Canadians is limited, and with the capacity output of these products far outstripping domestic demand, the only possible outlet for the surplus is the sale to other countries.

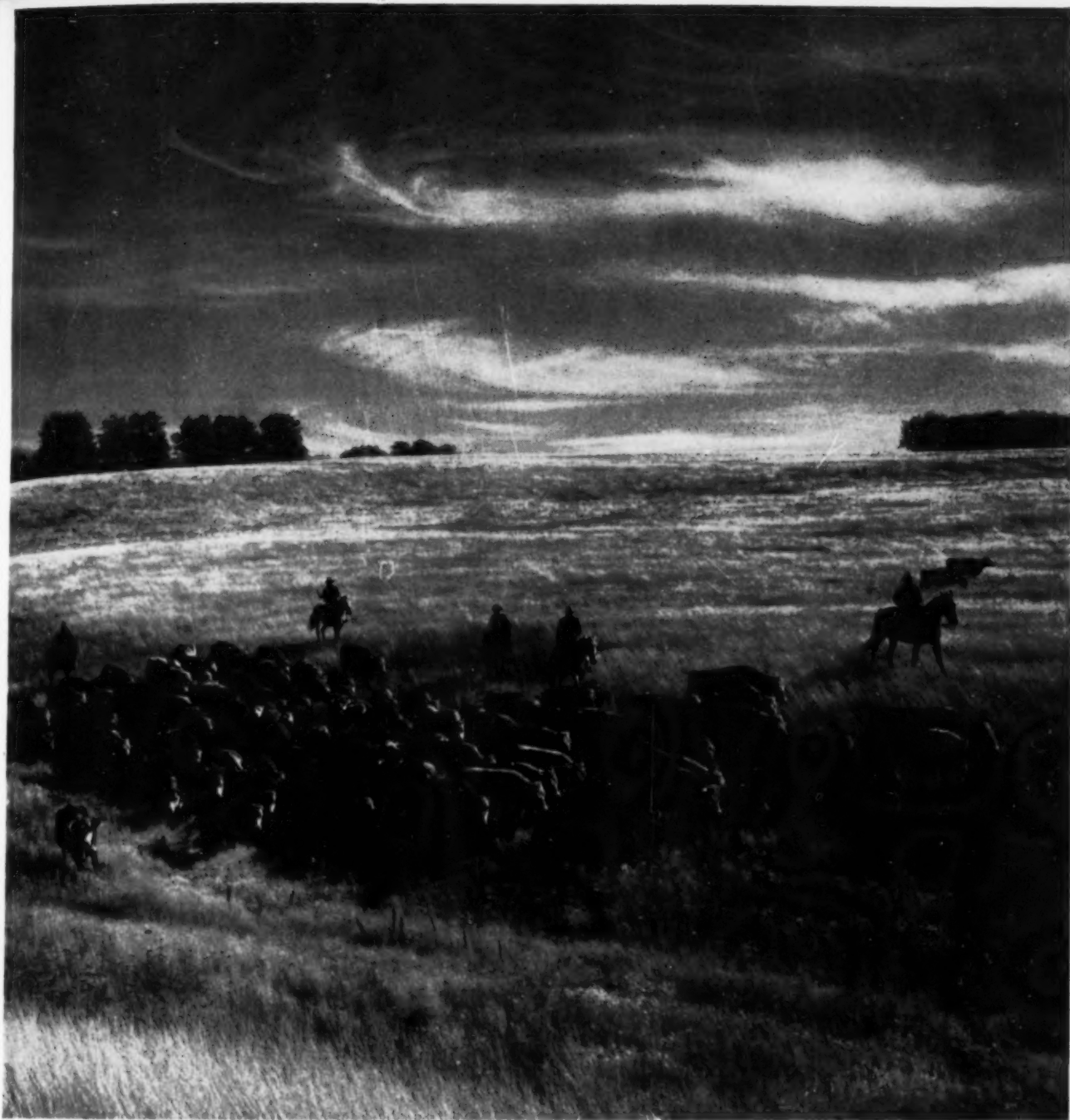
Trade Channels

The concentration of Canadian export trade in primary products is paralleled by the lack of diversification in the sources of Canadian imports and the destination of her

exports. Although the volume of Canadian trade ranks her as one of the greatest of "world traders", the great bulk of her imports have been supplied, and most of her exports bought, by two countries, the United States and the United Kingdom.

The dominant position of the United States in Canadian trade is what one might expect from close and friendly relations with a great industrial neighbour. The high volume of Canadian trade with the United Kingdom is due to several reasons: the traditional ties of Empire, the long history of trade between the two countries, and the complementary nature of the two economies. The United Kingdom needs Canadian primary products; the corresponding Canadian need for British manufactures is perhaps not so pronounced these days as it was a century ago, with the growth of a manufacturing industry in Canada and the increasing pressure of imports from the United States. Despite the eminently valid reasons for the size of trade with these two countries, it is somewhat surprising that Canadian foreign commerce has not been more widely distributed over the globe. Few countries with a foreign trade of any size show a similar lack of geographical dispersion in their trading relationships.

The place of the two countries in Canadian trade is illustrated by the following figures. In the first year following Confederation the United States and the United Kingdom provided 90 per cent of Canadian imports. In 1896 their share fell to 82 per cent, rose again to 86 in 1920 and at the present time is approximately 85 per cent. Included in the totals are some products of other countries shipped into Canada via the United States and the United Kingdom, and credited to one of the two in the trade returns, but the amounts are not great enough to warrant more than passing comment. On the export side the concentration is not quite so pronounced. Before 1900 the proportion of Canadian exports to the United States and United Kingdom approximated 90 per cent. Thereafter it declined, averaging 70 per cent in the twenties. In 1946 the figure stood at



A ranch in Western Canada—background for the agreement between Canada and the United Kingdom, whereby provision is made for the shipment to Great Britain of a minimum of 120,000,000 pounds of beef this year. Although the number of livestock on farms in this country has declined from the all-time peak of 10,758,600 cattles on June 1, 1945, Canada is still in a position to fill some of the requirements of countries whose resources have been strained by the war. Fresh beef and veal shipments last year were valued at \$27,200,000, as compared with only \$500,000 in 1938. Much interest has been displayed in purebred livestock, shipments of which have been made this year from Canada to Great Britain, Argentina, China, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, Jamaica, Newfoundland, Palestine, Puerto Rico and the United States. Exports of purebred cattle during the first five months of 1947 totalled 9,661, valued at \$2,307,684. Shipments last year were valued at over seven million dollars.

N.F.B. photo

64 per cent, with shipments financed by credits and UNRRA expanding temporarily the volume of exports flowing to other countries.

Altogether the two countries share about 75 per cent of total Canadian trade. As between the two the United States has become increasingly dominant, particularly in the field of imports. In 1946 the United States furnished 75 per cent of Canadian import requirements, and took in return 39 per cent of Canadian exports. The United Kingdom, on the other hand, supplied less than 10 per cent of Canadian imports, but received 25 per cent of her exports.

Effects of Tariffs and Preferences

It would be incorrect to assume that geography and other physical and economic factors are the sole explanation for the present direction and composition of Canadian imports and exports. The complex world structure of tariffs, quotas, preferences and trade agreement which has evolved over the past half century has had considerable effect in shaping the growth of Canadian foreign trade. One of the best examples is the preferential tariff between countries of the British Empire, which came into being shortly before the first World War. Under its terms many Canadian goods entering Empire markets were assessed at a rate lower than that generally applicable, and Canada granted a similar preference to products of the Empire. This helped to extend and to maintain Canadian exports to Empire countries. In addition many United States corporations set up subsidiaries in Canada to take advantage not only of the domestic market in Canada itself but also of the preference in Empire markets, contributing substantially to the development of Canadian manufacturing industry. The other side of the picture is that foreign tariffs have frequently prevented the entry of Canadian goods into markets where they would otherwise have held a competitive advantage. While tariffs and similar measures have undoubtedly exerted a powerful influence on Canadian trade, it must be emphasized that their impact became more varied, more pronounced and more far-

reaching after Canada had become a great trading nation, and after the basic nature of Canada's economy had already been established from the natural development of her resources in the period of relative freedom of world trade.

With regard to import trade, tariffs and preferences have had less effect. The proportion of Canadian imports coming from the United States is evidence of this. The proximity of Canada and the United States, the integration of industry in the two countries, and the capacity of the United States to fill most Canadian requirements for imported goods have far outweighed any preferences granted to Empire countries. If the United States is excluded, however, it is justifiable to conclude that the preference has been instrumental in concentrating a larger part of residual Canadian demand for foreign goods in the United Kingdom and other Empire countries than would otherwise have been the case.

It might well be asked why the factors so important in establishing the United States as the main source of Canadian supply have not stimulated a greater flow of exports to that country. Although these exports have increased greatly in dollar value, as a percentage of the whole they are less now than in the decade following Confederation. There is no simple explanation for this, but one of the reasons is that the United States is and has always been a large producer of the majority of the primary products in which Canada excels. With the United States close to self-sufficiency in these products, Canada has a limited range of commodities which she can sell in the United States in competition with goods either produced in that country or imported from other exporting nations. In brief, Canada apparently needs United States coal, oil, fruits, cotton, machinery and manufactured goods more than the United States needs the products which Canada is best fitted to supply. On this basis the United Kingdom and many of the European and Empire countries are a more natural market for Canadian goods than is the United



Fish canning in British Columbia. Fisheries in waters adjacent to British Columbia, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick contribute approximately \$70,000,000 to a national income of nearly \$90,000,000 derived from that source. The fish canning industry has grown to large proportions. clams, haddock, lobsters, pilchards, salmon and sardines finding their way into tins for shipment all over the world. Fish, valued at \$86,500,000, was exported last year, of which \$12,331,000 represented canned salmon for thirty countries, \$10,218,000 represented canned herrings for forty-two countries, and \$1,038,000 represented sardines in oil for forty-six countries. Commercial fishing in Canada, which had an estimated value of only \$125,000 in 1844, developed rapidly during the latter half of the nineteenth century, and reached a value of almost \$22,000,000 in 1900. Low prices were responsible for a decline after 1918, but the industry more than doubled its output during the last war.

N.F.B. photo

States, which possesses within itself such immense wealth and variety of basic resources, climate and developed skills.

Canadian Production and Foreign Trade

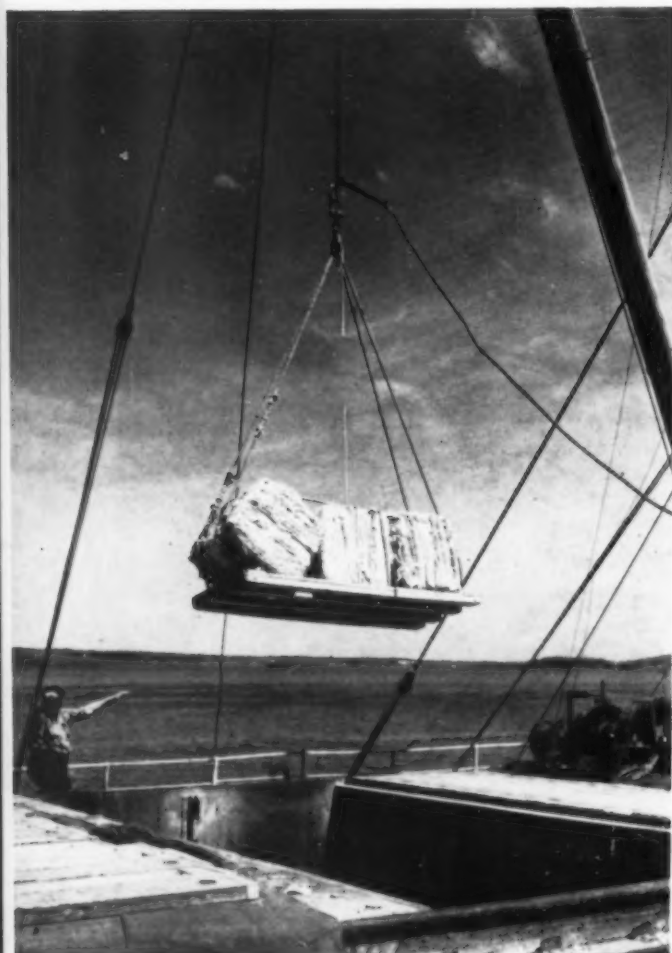
A subject of current interest is the relationship between Canadian foreign trade and production. An estimate of this nature is difficult to make, largely because of the different methods used in the compilation of trade and production figures. To establish a proper basis for comparison it is essential that the value of services as well as of the actual physical commodities produced be included in the aggregate of both production and exports. "Services" include such miscellaneous items as work done by domestic servants, costs of transporting and selling goods after they leave the factory, mine or farm, profits and commissions from business, and in general all costs which cannot be assessed directly against a tangible commod-

ity. Examples of services exported include income received by Canadians from investments abroad, and sales of services to foreign tourists in Canada. Without going into the matter in more detail it may be estimated roughly that before the war exports of goods and services amounted to between 20 and 25 per cent of Canadian production. During the peak war years this percentage climbed to about 35 per cent. In 1946, as exports declined from the wartime high level and national production fell but slightly, it is estimated that about one-quarter of Canadian production was consumed by foreigners.

The ratio of imported goods and services to total production was somewhat lower before the war than the corresponding percentage of exports. During the war the ratio of the volume of imports to total production declined even below the peacetime level and was close to one-half of the export ratio. At the present time, with the resurgence of Canadian demand for imported machinery and consumer goods, and the increased availability of these products, imports and exports are close to a balance, and the percentage of imports to total production is about the same as exports, 25 per cent.

Current Canadian Trade Problems

The system of trade with other nations, whereby Canada has been enabled to exchange the goods she is best fitted to produce for commodities in which she is deficient or which she cannot produce competitively, has undoubtedly been one of the greatest single factors contributing to her growth over the past eighty years. Foreign trade has fostered the intensive development of and specialization in those primary products which other nations want, and which could only have been profitably exploited under



Groundwood pulp being loaded at Sheet Harbour, Nova Scotia, for shipment to France. Canadian exports of this mechanical wood pulp, mostly to the United States, were valued at \$12,571,000 last year. Shipments of sulphite pulp were even higher, being valued at \$82,132,000.

N.F.B. photo



Foodstuffs and other Canadian goods being discharged in London by the Canadian Pacific cargo liner Beaverdell. Foodstuffs are among the most important commodities shipped by Canada to the United Kingdom, which has come to depend on supplies from this Dominion to an ever-increasing extent since the decline in exportable surpluses from other traditional sources. Canada has contracted to provide specific quantities of bacon, beef, lamb and mutton, canned meat lunch, hog casings, oxtails, beef offals, pork offals, cheese, evaporated milk, roller dried skim milk powder, dressed poultry, eggs, fruit pulp, flax, flax tow, wheat and wheat flour. Under an agreement whereby 160,000,000 bushels of wheat shall be supplied by Canada to Great Britain in the crop year ended last July, the quantity clauses have been filled. A total of 440,000,000 bushels is to be delivered during the next three years. Canadian wheat shipments last year were valued at \$250,300,000.

Port of London Authority photo

conditions which permitted sale of a large portion of production to other countries. By selling these goods abroad the Canadian standard of living has been raised far beyond the limitations imposed by the nature of her natural resources and her climate.

Although the benefits to Canada have been great, it has become increasingly evident over the last few years that too great an immersion in foreign trade raises problems for which a simple solution has yet to be found. One need only look back to the great depression in the nineteen thirties to see how vulnerable a trading nation like Canada is to depressions in other countries. Between 1928 and 1932 exports from Canada fell by two-thirds; the demand for Canadian goods slumped to levels lower than since the early days of World War I.

The catastrophic nature of falling demand abroad for Canadian products in such times of depression, and the resulting severity of the aftermath in Canada, is due to a combination of circumstances to which nations engaged in foreign trade are peculiarly vulnerable. When a country suffers from unemployment and a declining level of business activity, usually one of the first steps taken is to raise trade barriers against imports which are not absolutely essential, in order to maintain or increase employment in industries which produce substitutes or replacements. Canada has been particularly susceptible to action of this kind, since in normal times few of her exports are completely indispensable to the purchasing country. In most products exported by Canada she is a "marginal" source of supply, that is, the amounts of her exportable surplus are small in relation to world production and are first to feel the pinch of falling demand. Wheat is an example; almost every country produces wheat or similar cereals, and in bad times of lowered consumption domestic production will be maintained even if costs are higher than the price of the imported equivalent. The demand for another major Canadian export, newsprint paper, also fluctuates more violently than the general average. Most Canadian newsprint is sold

in the United States. In a depression one of the first items on a corporation's budget to be cut is advertising. When advertising lineage falls so does the size of newspapers and the demand for newsprint. In general, world prices of primary products tend to show greater swings than the average level of prices, which accentuates the effect of a falling demand on Canadian exports. And with the heavy fixed capital investments and overhead costs in Canadian primary industry, declining volume of sales mean a unit cost which increases abnormally fast.

Of additional significance is the regional impact in Canada of declining foreign demand. In many sections of the country prosperity is dependent to a marked extent on the marketing abroad of one product. In the Maritimes the product is fish, in the Prairies wheat and in British Columbia lumber. A depressed foreign demand for any of these products hits the area concerned particularly hard.

On the other hand, any reduction that Canada institutes in the goods she imports is reflected in a lower standard of living, as many imported goods cannot be replaced on any reasonable cost basis by production within Canada. Consequently, in a depression Canada finds herself in the position of trying to sell goods for which there is little foreign demand to pay for goods which she herself needs vitally. As is usually the case in such a situation, Canadian prices tend to fall faster than the prices of the goods which must be imported.

There is another aspect of Canadian trade which has become increasingly significant since the end of World War II. The system of multilateral exchange of goods and services, by which a country could use the proceeds of its sales in one country to buy goods in another, functioned with moderate success in the century before the war. This system of trading was vital to Canada, for although so much of her trade was concentrated in two countries the trade with each was badly out of balance. The surplus of exports to the United Kingdom financed the trade deficit with the United States.



Bacon for Britain and the production of yet more pigs are receiving considerable attention in Canada. Total exports of bacon in 1946, in the form of hams, shoulders and sides, were valued at \$66,389,000, representing 2,892,916 cwts. Of this quantity, the United Kingdom received bacon valued at \$65,204,000. Small amounts were shipped to the Gold Coast, Bermuda, the Malayan Union, British Guiana, British Honduras, Barbados, Jamaica, Trinidad, the Leeward and Windward Islands, Newfoundland and Alaska. Purebred swine and fresh pork contributed to the export total. Hog production is increasing in Canada, which had an estimated pig population of 3,972,000 last December. This pose was arranged at the Central Experimental Farm, Ottawa.

The war destroyed the automatic nature of this exchange of goods and services, since few of the combatants on the allied side were able to offer a supply of exports adequate to pay for their inexhaustible demands for food and armaments. During the war the gap was bridged by such devices as American Lend-Lease, Canadian Mutual Aid, and by loans and credits. These mutually satisfactory arrangements financed the continuing flow of necessary war supplies from the producing nations to their allies closer to the combat zone.

The war is over but the disruption to trade caused by it is still very much in evidence. The recovery of the great European trading nations has taken much longer than originally expected, and interim measures have been instituted to maintain the flow of goods from the United States and Canada to countries facing immense problems in recovery and rehabilitation. While the loans and credits granted by Canada have served the dual purpose of helping this recovery abroad and maintaining employment in Canadian export industries, the surplus of exports from Canadian trade with the United Kingdom and with other European and Empire countries is no longer available to meet the deficit in Canadian trade with the United States.

The problem has been aggravated by the increasing lack of balance in trade between Canada and the United States. In the five years 1935-39 the average surplus of commodity imports into Canada from the United States over Canadian exports to that country amounted to \$87,000,000. In 1946 it stood at \$497,000,000. The net deficit on non-commodity or service items increased the overall deficit to approximately \$600,000,000. This debit balance was met out of accumulated reserves and by the use of gold and foreign exchange convertible into United States dollars received from countries whose purchases from Canada were financed in the main out of Canadian credits. Although the current volume of imports may be inflated, due in part to the refilling of inventories depleted during the war, large capital expen-

ditures on machinery and equipment, and the abnormally high prices paid, a continuing level of imports much higher than before the war is to be anticipated.

One facet of the Canadian problem is the necessity of keeping exports at a level high enough to maintain employment in the vulnerable export industries. Another is the necessity of obtaining sufficient convertible foreign exchange from the sale of goods abroad to pay the large import bill. So long as Canadians continue to do most of their foreign buying in one market, the United States, a return of multilateral trade and free convertibility of foreign exchange received from the sale of exports anywhere in the world is likely to prove the only entirely satisfactory solution to Canada's trade problems—unless ways and means can be found whereby Canada's imports from the United States can be offset by a substantial and durable increase in the value of her exports to that country. Such a recovery of world trade is dependent upon factors over which Canada has little control. The willingness of the United States to accept a greater volume of imports from all countries, or in conjunction with existing international monetary organizations to sustain foreign purchasing power by other methods, and the ability of the United Kingdom and other European countries to re-establish their economies and their foreign trade on a sound basis, are the great questions that are still in process of being answered.

Although these problems do exist, and they should not be minimized, the internal economy of Canada is in a sounder position to grapple with them than at any period in her history. Manufacturing facilities are much greater than when Canada entered the war. Unemployment is at a low level. Canadian goods have never before had such wide circulation in the markets of the world. No one who considers this inherent strength can help feeling confident of Canada's ability to surmount her foreign trade problems, given conditions under which world trade recovery has an opportunity to go forward on a firm footing.



Canadian certified seed potatoes, destined for markets in Latin America, awaiting shipment from Saint John, New Brunswick. Total exports during 1946 amounted to 3,243,637 bushels, valued at \$2,259,922. Nineteen countries purchased Canadian stock, the largest proportion going to the United States, though substantial quantities were shipped to Cuba, Argentina, Uruguay, Venezuela and South Africa. Canadian production reached a new record during the past year, amounting to nearly 11,000,000 bushels. Heavy purchases of table stock were made last spring by the United Kingdom, loadings in Saint John and Halifax being supplemented by later consignments taken aboard in Montreal. This industry is a major factor in the economy of Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick, and becoming increasingly important in other provinces.



Konkomba Fishing

British Official Photographs

The Northern Territories, protectorate of the Gold Coast, have some three-quarters of a million people living in their 30,000 square miles. The country is forested in the south, with rolling open plains in the north, and the principal occupations of the people are agriculture and animal husbandry.

The Konkomba tribe in the Northern Territories, who live 260 miles from the sea, make great efforts to augment their diet by the provision of fresh fish. Fishing is a communal affair carried out by a hundred or more men, women and children. A pool is selected in the dry season, when the rivers are no longer flowing and the fish in the pools are at their fattest. The men of the party, each equipped with a large D-shaped net, plunge into the pool. They form ranks across the width of the river, their nets

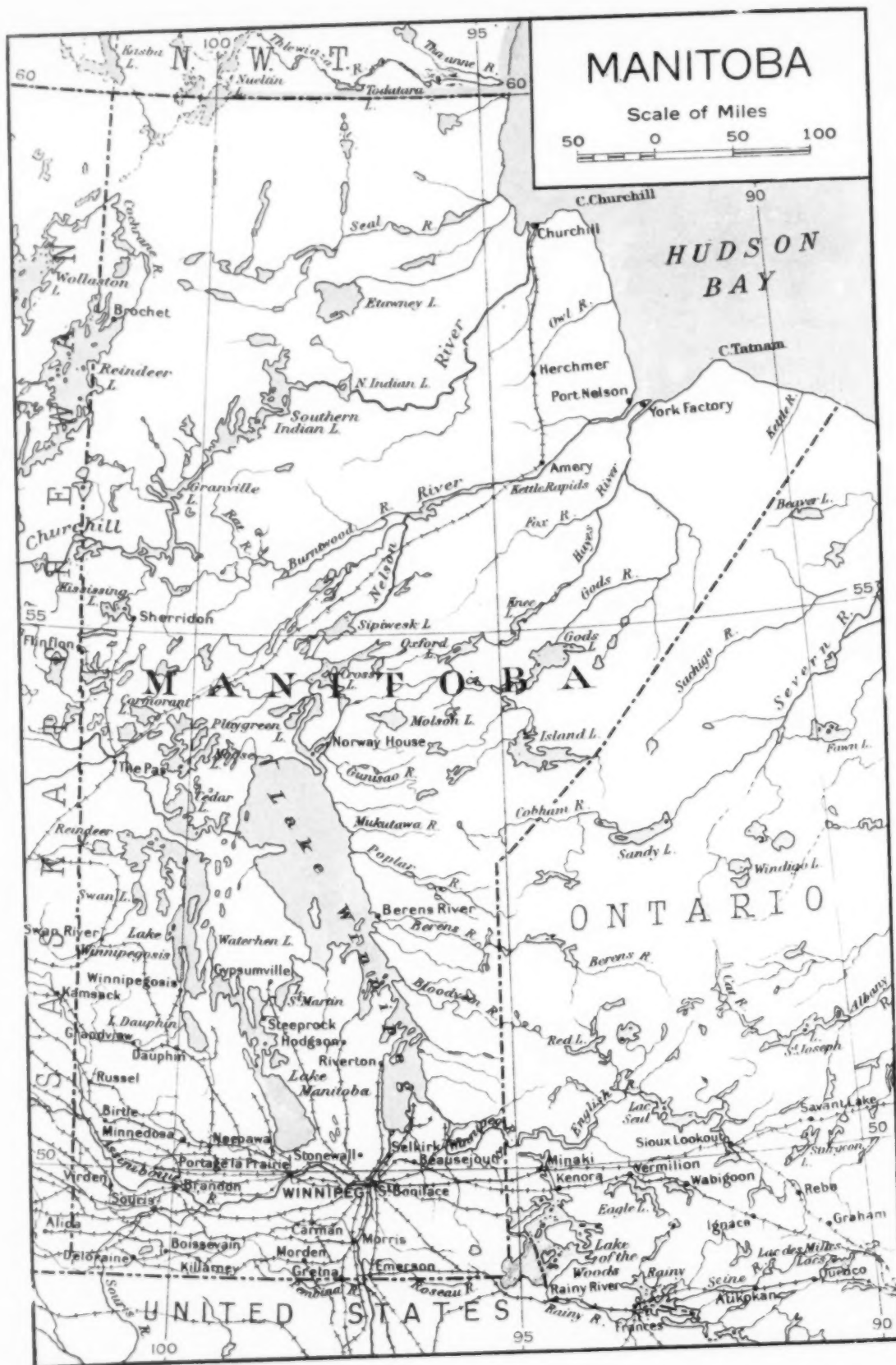


making a barrier through which the fish cannot swim. The party then works its way slowly to the end of the pool, while the children comb the reeds on the bank with hand nets. As the men move into shallow water the trapped fish make frantic efforts to escape, leaping into the air and often clearing the line of nets. The fish caught are threaded by bodkin onto the frame of the net or, if too large for this, are taken ashore at once. So that the ranks may remain unbroken, fishermen have to hold their catch in their mouths when there is not time to dispose of it otherwise. In the final sweep to the end of the pool, the small boys move into the river with their nets to help in catching the leaping fish.

The Konkomba women, dressed in leaves, carry their fish traps to the banks of the pool. The trap resembles a crab-pot, without the bottom. As the men work their way across the pool many fish are driven to the banks. The women then thrust their fishing pots into the mud and feel inside for their catch; this consists of the small-fry, sometimes catfish and, at times, small turtles and crocodiles.

M.B.





Manitoba

by R. O. MACFARLANE

MANITOBA is quite definitely "the West" to the Easterner, and it is almost "the East" to the Westerner. The province occupies the west central portion of that great area drained by waters flowing into Hudson Bay. If the Laurentian Shield had not deprived Canada of a middle west, then Manitoba could have been so described. The capital city, Winnipeg, sits astride Canada's communication systems in much the same way that Chicago straddles those of the United States. Each is a key communication centre in east-west travel.

Apart from its position in the centre of the country, probably the most usual assumption about Manitoba is that it is all a flat treeless prairie. Nothing could be more misleading. Seventy-five miles from Winnipeg, in any direction, the country is at least rolling, if not actually hilly, and all the valleys are well wooded. Veering off to the north and east of the province is the Precambrian Shield that in no way resembles prairie land. To the southwest and west the second prairie steppe rises sharply above the plain and is cut by many deep valleys. To the northwest the Riding Mountains rise over 1,000 feet above the surrounding country.

Manitoba Travel and Publicity Bureau photos except where otherwise credited

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Manitoba, like most other parts of Canada, was first explored along the routes of its great rivers, first the Churchill and the Nelson, and later the Red and the Assiniboine. Before the end of the seventeenth century men sought the great cash crop of the prairies—fur. With the founding of the Hudson's Bay Company in 1670, and the subsequent establishment of the trading posts on tidewater at York Factory and Fort Prince of Wales (Churchill), there was constant communication between the area that is now Manitoba and the Old World. Penetration into the interior was slow because, so long as there was no competition, the Hudson's Bay factors found little difficulty in persuading the Indians to bring their furs down to the posts on the Bay to exchange for European wares. Thus, the expensive and difficult task of transporting European goods into the interior and bringing the furs out was avoided, and profits were generally satisfactory.

In this stage of development the white man made singularly little impression on the interior of the continent. The Indian pursued his way of life much as he had afore-

Part of the restored outer wall of old Fort Prince of Wales at Eskimo Point on the west shore of Churchill River.



time, except that he had the questionable advantage of certain European goods such as firearms, to aid him in the pursuit of his quarry the fur-bearing animal, and knives, pots and kettles for his convenience. Once the fur-bearing regions east of the Shield began to be thinned out, the search of the white man for new fur supplies led him ever farther into the rocks and the forests of that vast hinterland that is now Northern Ontario. Finally, in the second quarter of the eighteenth century, he penetrated this region, and emerged into the valleys of the Red and the Assiniboine. Thus was laid the basis for the first great conflict on the plains: the rivalry of the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company, each seeking to drain off the catch of costly furs by a different route, the one via Hudson Bay, the other via the St. Lawrence River.

In the face of this competition the Hudson's Bay factors could no longer remain at tidewater and wait for the Indians to bring their furs to them. It now became necessary to penetrate far into the interior in search of furs. If the Hudson's Bay men did not do so, contacts with the tribes were made by their rivals, the Nor'Westers, who drained off the furs over their route to the east. Competition became so keen and rivalry so bitter that the leaders of the two companies finally merged their fortunes in 1821 into the reorganized Hudson's Bay Company. By this time the Indian was used to having trading posts that were more readily accessible to him than those on the Bay, or even at the forts on the Red and the Assiniboine Rivers. More and more men were required to carry on the fur trade, not just the few factors who met the Indians when they brought in their goods, but voyageurs as well, to assist in the transportation of supplies and, eventually, farmers to raise the supplies which otherwise had to be brought in over a long and costly route to feed the voyageurs and the traders.

Under the necessity of providing agricultural products for the fur-traders, a settlement was begun in the Red River Valley in 1812 when Lord Selkirk brought out his

Scottish crofters to that area. This settlement must not be thought of as one with an agricultural surplus to export from the country. The great cash crop was still fur. The agriculture that was carried on was definitely subsidiary to the fur industry. Nevertheless, the process of settlement had begun. While this development was taking place in the Red River Valley, around almost every fur-trading post in the West some kind of garden, and later fields of grain, began to appear. These white and half-breed settlements made an impression on the way of life of the Indians, very much greater than had been the case when the Indians carried their furs to the Bay.

For twenty-five years after the union of the companies, the life of the colony pursued the even tenor of its way in spite of floods and grasshoppers which caused great hardship to the settlers, but which by no means discouraged them. By the forties, however, the westward movement of population in the United States was beginning to penetrate the region directly south of the Red River settlement, and the cart-trails from Red River to St. Paul, Minnesota, soon began to provide an alternative market which cut into the monopoly which the Company had so long enjoyed. At the time of the union of the companies the free trader had been no serious problem because the only way in which he could dispose of his fur was through the Company. Now, however, he could reach the outside market and bypass the Company's coffers. Within twenty years, when the Sioux were cleared from the Upper Red River Valley, the second great conflict for the area that is now Manitoba, was on. Trade influences were drawing the new area towards three different orbits, first Hudson Bay, second the St. Lawrence, third St. Paul.

By this time too, another stage in the development of the settlement of Canada as a whole had been reached. In the normal westward movement across the continent, settlers had filtered around the southern edge of the Shield to fill up the region that is Western Ontario. When the arable land



Winter fishing on the ice of the Assiniboine and Red Rivers at Fort Gibraltar. Drawn by P. Rindisbacher, December 1821. Photo courtesy Public Archives of Canada

there was all taken up, they drifted naturally into the area that was later to become the states of Michigan and Wisconsin. By the 1860's this western frontier had reached the Red River Valley, and now once again, Canada had economically free land available for settlement. At the same time as the influence of the cart-trails to the south was making itself felt, the new Dominion of Canada was coming into being with all the energy and expansiveness of a young nation. Gradually, the first route into Manitoba, that via the Bay, was pushed into the background and the conflict centred on the pull to the east and to the south.

Settlers from Ontario poured into the Red River Valley in the sixties, and an inevitable struggle developed between the old society and the new—between the society for whom Fur was King and the society for whom King Wheat was emerging over the horizon. Too often has the conflict which culminated in the insurrection of 1870 been thought of as one of race and of religion. This was a greater source of contention in Ontario and Quebec than it was at Red River. An analysis of the

line-up of parties reveals a picture of newcomers against old settlers. The newcomers were anxious to take over the region as a part of Canada. The old settlers were anxious to ensure their rights as a province before they entered into any arrangement with the young Dominion, for which they felt little, if any, identity of interest. The situation was complicated by a tinge of sentiment for annexation to the United States.

The new Dominion of Canada proceeded to purchase from the Hudson's Bay Company, its territorial rights in the West. This transfer was arranged through the British Government but before the transfer could be completed, the colony at Red River was in a state of insurrection under the leadership of twenty-five-year-old Louis Riel. By 1869 there were three possible legal jurisdictions in the area: firstly the authority of the Hudson's Bay Company which had been surrendered to the British Government in the course of the transfer negotiations; secondly, the authority of the Government of Canada which had not yet completed the transfer from the British Government, and



Early Manitoba colonists. 1, 2—A Swiss, his wife and children, from the Canton of Berne; 3—A German from the disbanded Meusson Regt.; 4—A Scottish Highlander; 5—An immigrant from French Canada. Drawn by P. Rindisbacher (1806-34), one of the Swiss colonists.

Photo courtesy Public Archives of Canada

thirdly, that of the Imperial Parliament. There is no evidence that Riel ever disputed the authority of the British Government. The Hudson's Bay authority had collapsed. Riel resisted the assumption of an authority by the Parliament of Canada which he contended it did not legally possess.

Riel's idea seems to have been that through the adoption of a bill of rights by a provisional government, the settlement could dictate the terms on which the new province would enter the Dominion, or rather could assure that it would enter as a province and not merely as a territory—an imperial possession of the Dominion. With the arrival of Wolseley's force in August 1870, the provisional government evaporated, but not the cause for which Riel had protested so vigorously. The Manitoba Act, which provided the terms by which the Province of Manitoba should enter the Dominion of Canada,

was based to no small extent on the original bill of rights. Nevertheless, the fundamental issue in the struggle, the conflict of the old and the new, resulted in a definite triumph for the latter and passing of the former. Thus did the St. Lawrence route triumph over its rivals, the cart-trail to St. Paul and the route to the Bay. Thus did King Wheat tumble King Fur from his throne.

The fact that there was an element in the Red River Valley which was not of Canadian origin explains, to no small extent, the attitude of at least the first generation of the West towards the East. But an even more curious phenomenon was to follow: the conquerors who had come into the new land were soon converted in many ways to the point of view of those over whom they had triumphed. Western agrarianism had its roots well founded in the traditions of the plains.

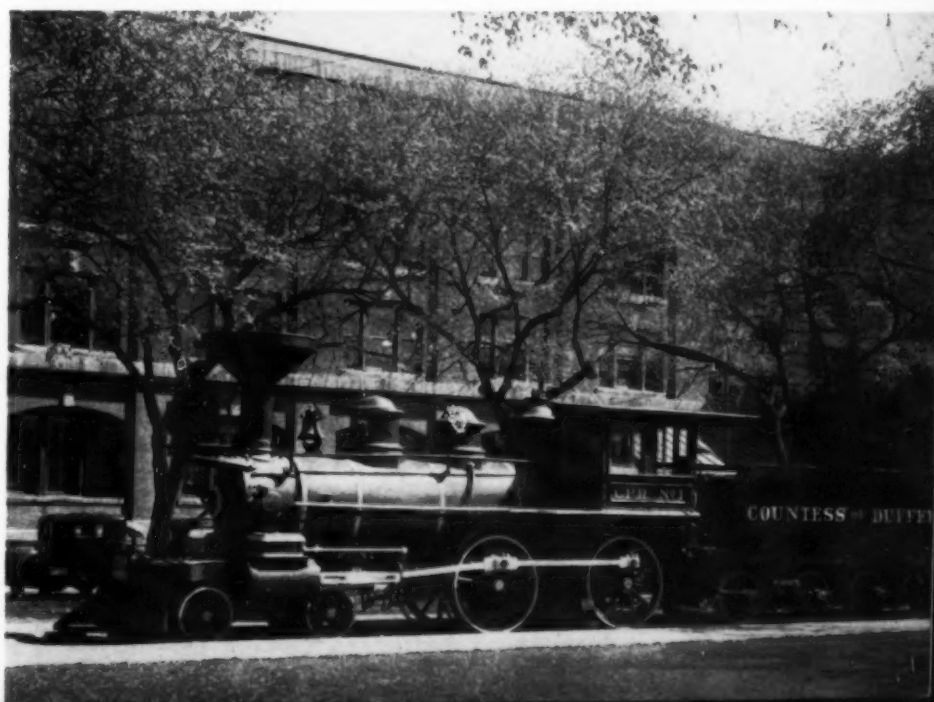
Once the political and the constitutional issues were settled, the way was clear for the rapid development of the area. The old stern-wheelers which plied the Red River to the head of steel in Minnesota, soon proved inadequate to handle the growing volume of traffic. By 1878 the rail connection to the south was completed. Here was another threat to draw off to the United States the rich traffic of the western country. Sir John MacDonald realized that the only way to make this section of the world truly a part of the young Dominion was to bridge the Shield with a railway line. After his defeat on the railway issue in 1874 it appeared that MacDonald's dream might not be realized, at least not in time to save the West for Canada. With his return to office in 1878 he soon revived the project, and in 1885 the line was completed. Eastern Canada, at last, had a direct rail connection with its western counterpart. As soon as the railways provided access to the outside world, the population increased rapidly. It was now possible to export wheat, the cash crop. The fertile lands of the Red and the Assiniboine Valleys soon attracted many homesteaders, and settlement began to leave the rivers, which had formerly been the sole means of transportation, to follow the new railway lines.

But the railways which were once thought

by the settler to be so essential to his economic well-being, were soon regarded as his oppressor. The Canadian Pacific Railway Charter which created a monopoly of all the area between the main line and the American border, aroused bitter resentment in Manitoba. So did the rates charged for hauling freight. It was felt that if contacts could be made with the United States lines, effective competition could be provided which would bring down rates and, consequently, increase the net price which the farmer could get for his grain. The Provincial Legislature of Manitoba chartered numerous railway companies in violation of the C.P.R.'s monopoly, only to have the legislation disallowed by the Dominion Government. Eventually, however, the province had its way, and Manitoba was quickly supplied with adequate transportation facilities to meet its economic need.

Meanwhile, the growth of settlement had necessitated two extensions of the boundary to the westward and northward. The original "postage stamp province" of 1870 (so called because of its small area) had contained practically all the inhabited area of that time. As immigrants poured in from the East they desired to live in a province rather than in the territory, and thus enjoy a greater measure of self-government. The first

The "Countess of Dufferin", first railway locomotive in the West, brought to Winnipeg by barge in 1878. It now stands in front of the C.P.R. station in Winnipeg.





Harvest time in a section of Manitoba's vast grain lands.

extension was made in 1881, west to the present boundary of Saskatchewan and north to $52^{\circ} 50'$; the second in 1912 extended the limits to the 60th parallel of latitude and the shores of Hudson Bay.

The province grew rapidly. In 1891 it had about 150,000 people. By 1901 this had increased to 250,000, by 1911 to 460,000, and by 1921 to 620,000. In the same period the area in field crops increased from a million and a half acres to over thirty million acres. These years of steady growth were typical of the westward movement on this continent. Towns and cities appeared; booms were followed by collapse of prices and fortunes vanished as quickly as they had been accumulated. But beneath all the flourish was the constant development of the community.

REGIONAL DESCRIPTION

Manitoba has an area of 246,512 square miles. This figure is apt to be deceiving,

however, as a very large portion lies within the Precambrian Shield, and only about one-quarter is habitable on the basis of the known resources. Most of the arable portion of the province is found in the first and second prairie steppes, the Red and the Assiniboine River systems providing the main drainage. The whole province slopes into its elaborate lake system, which in turn, is drained by the Nelson River into Hudson Bay. A portion of the northern part of the province is drained by the Churchill and Hayes Rivers which generally parallel the Nelson as they flow in a northeasterly direction into Hudson Bay.

The province has a very extensive area of water. The largest of the lakes is Lake Winnipeg, over 250 miles long and with an area of 9,398 square miles. A very pleasant vacation trip is to sail on the *Keenora* from Selkirk on the Red River to Warren's Landing at the north end of the lake, thence by smaller boat across Playgreen Lake to Nor-

way House on the Nelson River, the round trip taking the better part of a week. Lake Manitoba and Lake Winnipegosis are large but shallow lakes, paralleling Lake Winnipeg and lying to the west of it. There are several small lakes, like Dauphin, of 200 square miles. The northern and eastern portions of the province, like all parts of the Shield, are studded with innumerable lakes, small and large. Those which are accessible by road or rail provide most attractive summer resorts, and those more remote are still a fisherman's paradise.

The river system of the province is a most elaborate one. In the early days these waterways provided the only means of communication. In more recent times, road, rail and air have surpassed the water routes in importance, though in the frontier regions the latter still provide the route for winter roads and also for canoe and barge transport in the summer time. The rivers serve as the main source of electrical energy. The Red and the Assiniboine make their way from the

southern and western boundaries of the province respectively, to join at Winnipeg; both rivers flow slowly but cut deeply into the rich soil of the prairie regions.

Tributaries, such as the Seine, the Rouseau, the Souris, the Shell and the Minnedosa, along with many other streams and a host of creeks, provide an adequate water system for the southern portions of Manitoba. In the north the Saskatchewan River, having coursed the other prairie provinces, drains into Lake Winnipeg which in turn flows out by the Nelson River into Hudson Bay. The great northern rivers, the Churchill, the Nelson and the Hayes, form a sharp contrast to the sluggish streams of the south; having numerous lake expansions where their sediment settles out, their waters are clearer; in the stretches between the lakes there are many rapids.

Southern Manitoba offers a substantial variety of soils, ranging from the heavy black gumbo of the Red River Valley and portions of the Assiniboine Valley, to the

Skirting the shore of Clear Lake.

Photo by R. W. Harrington





Vista of Riding Mountain National Park. The park lies on a plateau rising 1,000 feet above the prairies, south of Lake Winnipegosis.

Photo by R. W. Harrington

lighter soils of the uplands of the southwest corner of the province and the light sandy lands of the southeast. The land varies tremendously in fertility, from the great productivity of the Portage Plains to the much more meagre returns which can be obtained from the sterner, stonier soil between the lakes.

Manitoba is usually thought of as a treeless prairie, rather than a province with forests. The lumber resources, however, are very considerable. In the White Shell Forest Reserve, the Sandilands Forest Reserve, the Duck and Porcupine Reserves, there are good supplies of timber, and much of the north country produces good wood pulp. The Shield south of the barren lands is heavily treed. Spruce, aspen and jack pine are the most common varieties found.

Manitoba is not everywhere the flat country that travellers see in the immediate neighbourhood of Winnipeg. On the prairie

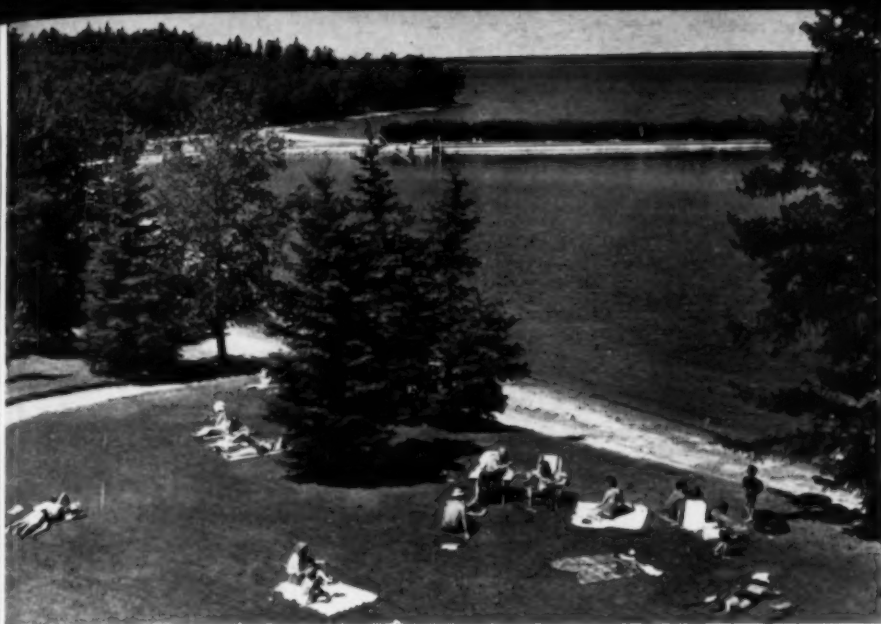
there are many valleys such as the Pembina, the Assiniboine, the Minnedosa, the Shell, and the Swan, all of which provide breaks in what is so often thought of as a flat plain. These valleys offer some of the most pleasant scenery to be found anywhere in the province. Then, too, there are the elevations that rise abruptly above the level of the plains, the Turtle Mountains in the southwest, the Riding, Duck and Porcupine Mountains in the northwest. The northern and eastern parts of the province lying within the Shield, while showing no great relief, are hummocky and rocky. This uneven surface disappears to the northeast under a belt of country of low relief, the Hudson Bay Lowlands.

RESOURCES AND INDUSTRIES

Although the resources of Manitoba are not as great as those of several other provinces of Canada, they are reasonably well diversified. It was the lure of fur which first brought the white man to this region, and fur still is an important resource. Thanks to a long-sighted policy on the part of the government, the muskrat-marshes of the North have been reflooded after a series of dry years which threatened to destroy this industry. Today a large number of trappers make a very comfortable living from fur trading. Throughout the North, Indian and half-breed trappers make their livelihood from the catch of fox, muskrat and other prized fur-bearing animals. Furs from the wild lands are supplemented in substantial quantities by those raised domestically, particularly fox and mink.



The S.S. Keenora, which plies Lake Winnipeg, at St. Andrew's Locks.



*Holiday-makers at
Clear Lake, Riding
Mountain National
Park.*

Photo by R. W. Harrington

*A camp site in White-
shell Provincial Park,
on the eastern border
of the province.*



*Trout stream in
Whiteshell Forest
Reserve. The park
extends over 1,000
square miles of rug-
ged, unspoiled
country.*

SCENES OF MANITOBA'S FUR INDUSTRY

Left:—Pitching camp.



Above:—The trapper is rewarded for his patience.



Above:—The pelts are hung out on stretchers to dry.

Right:—Each trapper's pelts are counted and given a preliminary grading.



Left:—Furs are transported to The Pas in the departmental barge.

After fur, wheat was the attraction which drew population into the Red and Assiniboine Valleys. The rich soil, the cheapness of land, and the development of hard wheat, combined to promote the beginning of Canada's great prairie granary. Improvement of wheat strains to resist rust and to mature before frost, furthered agriculture. While field crops remain much the largest item of agricultural production, it is by no means the only one. Large portions of the province, especially the river valleys, are well adapted to mixed farming, and more and more diversification has taken place as the years have gone by. Live stock, dairy products, poultry products, garden products, honey, wool, and furs, all provide a substantial income for Manitoba farmers. In recent years the establishment of the Manitoba Sugar Company, located just outside of Winnipeg, has made a market for large quantities of sugar beets grown in the Red River Valley and in the south central part of the province.

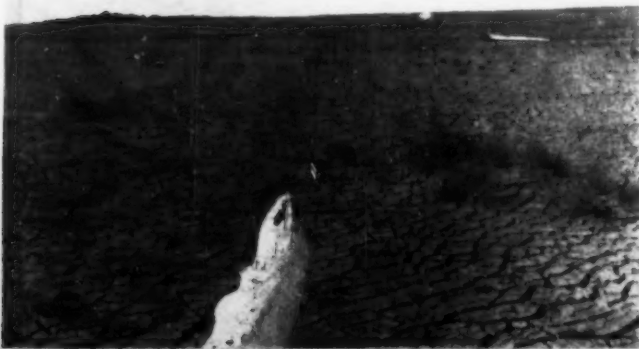
Contrary to popular belief, almost forty per cent of Manitoba is covered by forest, although only about a third of this area can be regarded as productive. The most common trees are: white and black spruce, aspen, balsam poplar, jack pine, tamarack, white birch and balsam fir; the hard woods, elm, oak and ash, are to be found in many of the river valleys. Practically every street in the City of Winnipeg boasts its elms; in fact a ready way to tell the age of any section of the city is by the size of the trees which

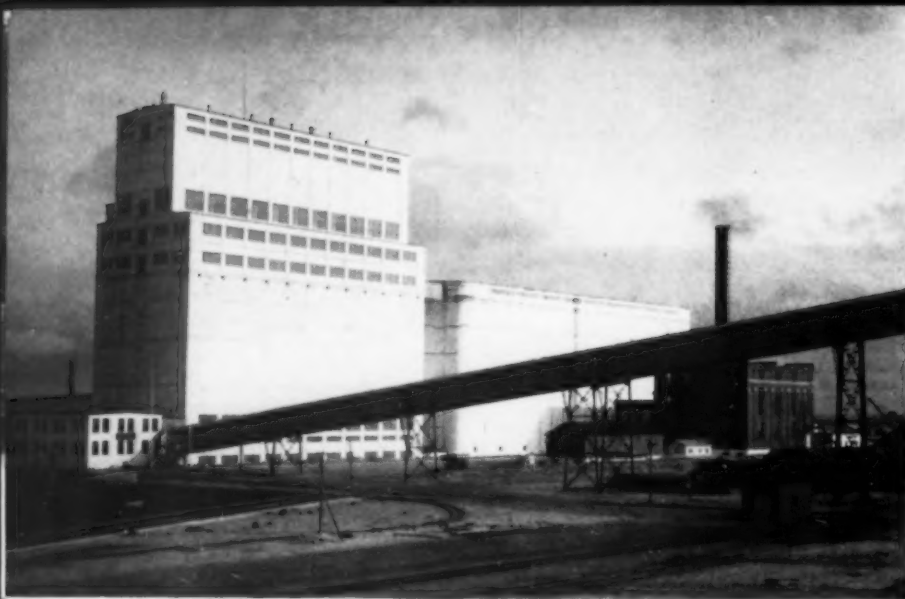
grace the boulevard. The Manitoba Paper Company, located at Pine Falls, cuts most of its pulpwood within the province. Substantial quantities of lumber for the local market are produced by such firms as The Pas Lumber Company, and by the numerous portable sawmills in various parts of the province. In addition, large quantities of firewood are supplied each year to the farms and to the towns.

That portion of the Laurentian Shield which lies within Manitoba contains considerable mineral wealth. Unfortunately, the inaccessibility to the outside world of most of the region makes it economic only to develop the large ore deposits. The largest mine now in operation is that of the Hudson Bay Mining and Smelting Company located at Flin Flon. This Company is one of the largest producers of zinc and copper on the continent. Tributary to the mine is a community of some 8,000 to 9,000 people. To develop this property a large investment of capital was required for the mine and smelter, and a railway 90 miles in length, through very difficult country from The Pas to Flin Flon, had to be built. One of the interesting features of the main ore body at Flin Flon is that both ends extend into the Province of Saskatchewan, although the mine-head itself is in Manitoba. This has tended to play some rather strange tricks with statistics for mineral production in these two provinces, to say nothing of what has happened to royalties.

The eastern Manitoba mining area centres

In the 1930's widespread drought turned muskrat-producing marsh areas into parched, cracked land. Water conservation restored the marshes (right) and the muskrats returned—to yield a valuable crop of fur.





Terminal elevator at the seaport of Churchill, with storage capacity of two and a half million bushels of grain. The long shaft conveys grain to ocean vessels.



A row of grain elevators at

about San Antonio, and gold is the chief mineral. The Sherritt-Gordon Mine, located at Sherridon, northeast of Flin Flon, is a base metal producer but it also turns out some gold. For many years the search for precious metals throughout the North has gone on. The present development of the Snow Lake properties northeast of The Pas will bring into production a low-cost gold mine. A recent discovery of copper and nickel deposits in the Lynn Lake area, about 120 miles north of Sherridon, has caused a flurry in the mining world. In this section there are very large deposits of rich ore. The properties are scattered over a wide area, but before any very substantial development can take place, a railway some 120 miles in length will have to be constructed.

More prosaic, but almost equally valuable mineral products are produced by the Canada Cement Company from its plant at Fort Whyte just outside Winnipeg, and by the stone quarries near Garson, south of Lake Winnipeg, which turn out as fine stone as is quarried anywhere in the country. Mining tends to diversify the industries of the province, and to provide a home market for very considerable quantities of agricultural products.

Manitoba's lakes provide through the fishing industry a livelihood for a considerable number of people. In Lakes Winnipeg, Mani-

toba and Winnipegosis, commercial fishing on a substantial scale is carried on, and the Lake Winnipeg "goldeye", one of the great fish delicacies, is probably the province's most distinctive food product. In the north country many of the lakes teem with fish. Not only do they provide trappers and prospectors with a readily available supply of fresh food, but large shipments are made to the export market. Tractor trains which ply the winter roads bringing out these supplies are one of the features of the transportation system of the North.

The province is well endowed with sources of hydro-electric power and some of the waterfalls are located sufficiently close to the centres of population to make transmission of power for commercial purposes feasible. Most important of the rivers in this regard is the Winnipeg, which drains the waters from the Lake of the Woods over a substantial fall before it reaches Lake Winnipeg. At Pointe du Bois, Slave Falls, Seven Sisters, Great Falls and Pine Falls, the energy of the river is turned into hydro-electric power to be transmitted not only to the city, by the publicly owned City Hydro, and privately owned Winnipeg Electric Company, but to be spread over a large portion of the province, through the services of the Manitoba Power Commission.

A large number of Manitoba farms now enjoy the services which electricity can per-



grain elevators at Roblin, characteristic of the grain region.

form for them. As the policy of rapid expansion being pursued by the Power Commission continues, it will not be long before a majority of the farms have electricity available at a reasonable cost. The importance of this service in improving farm living and working conditions can hardly be exaggerated. In addition, this readily available source of hydro-electric energy makes power for commercial enterprises in Winnipeg as cheap as it is in any place on the continent, and it has been the reason for the location of many an industry in the Greater Winnipeg area.

The great rivers of the north with their tremendous and constant flow, and substantial fall, as they make their way to Hudson Bay, provide a source of power for the mining developments within the Shield. The Churchill and the Nelson still have been barely touched, and great potential power resources are still undeveloped. As the northern part of the province opens up, a market for this power will become available.

CLIMATE

The climate of Manitoba is typically continental, extremes of heat and cold covering a range of almost 130 degrees; that is, from 40° F. below zero in the dead of winter to 90° F. in July. The winters are long and steadily cold; the change to summer comes very rapidly. Usually, the snowfall in winter is considerably less than in Eastern Canada.



Prairie grain elevator at Gilbert Plains railway siding.

The rainfall too, is relatively light, but it comes at a time when it is most needed to bring on the crops. During the years of severe drought in the 1930's, while the western portion of the province suffered very heavily, other portions, like the Red River Valley, had no serious moisture deficiency, and crop failures were unknown even in those hard years.

The winds are strong, especially those from the north in the winter and from the west in the summer, and give a distinctive character to the climate. Some westerners are very sensitive about their climate, especially its severity, and it is not regarded as good form in some circles to admit that it ever gets cold. But if it does become chilly at times, it is a clear dry cold that is not felt —much. Still, taking the weather as it comes (as Mark Twain said, there is very little that we can do about it!), what it lacks in balmy breezes it makes up for in invigoration.

COMMUNICATIONS

The province is well served with railway lines to bring products to market and to distribute manufactured goods to the outlying sections. The site of Winnipeg was originally selected at the forks of the Red and the Assiniboine Rivers as the strategic centre of the days of water transpor-

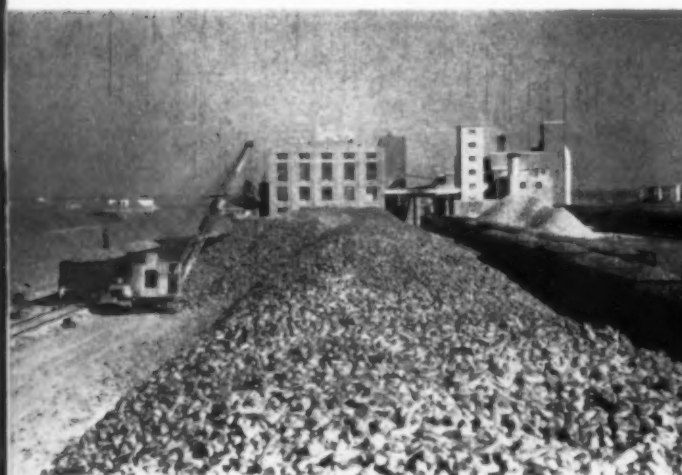


St. Boniface, where almost 200,000,000 pounds of beef, veal, mutton, lamb and pork are processed yearly.



Flour mills at Steinbach.

GLIMPSES OF MANITOBA



Railway carloads of beets being unloaded by crane at a Fort Garry processing plant.



A modern dairy farm near Winnipeg

Part of the stockyards at St. Boniface.



View of Great Falls power plant, largest p





Stock pile for the pulp and paper mills at Pine Falls.



Saw mill and lumber yards at The Pas.

TOBARIED INDUSTRIES



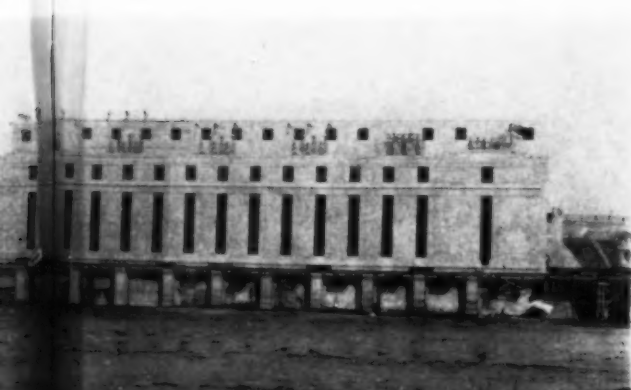
An oil plant at Brandon.



Neepawa salt works.

Plant largest plant on the Winnipeg River.

Photo courtesy Winnipeg Electric Co.



West shaft of the Sherritt Gordon Mine, Sherridon.





Freight yards of the C.P.R. in Winnipeg, the largest individually-owned railway yards in the world. A large part of Western Canada's grain crop moving east, and eastern manufactured products moving west, passes through these yards.

tation. When the railway came in from the south, it connected the Red River Valley with the American systems, and St. Boniface, and then Winnipeg, was its terminus. Later, the transcontinental line from the East threatened to cross the Red River at Selkirk and undermine the importance of Winnipeg as the commercial and distributing centre of the province. However, the Canadian Pacific eventually turned its line south just before it reached the Red, and the future of Winni-

peg as the transportation centre of the province was assured. Both the major railway lines fan out over the province, the C.P.R. dominating in the southern areas and the Canadian National in the north. The 510 miles of the Hudson Bay Railway from The Pas to Churchill provides Manitoba with an ocean port, which is open to navigation from July to October.

The roads of the province have improved greatly in the past two decades. The system

Hudson Bay Railway bridge across the Nelson River at Kettle Rapids.

Photo by R. W. Harrington



MANITOBA

Modern commercial aircraft provide fast service to mining communities in the northland. The transport planes shown here are based at Lac du Bonnet, 68 miles northeast of Winnipeg.

of square surveys which prevails (except for the old "river lots" surveyed back from the Red and the Assiniboine) leaves a road allowance every mile, and over 72,000 miles of such roads are laid out. The provincial trunk highway system, almost 2,000 miles in length, provides connections for the main centres of population, and through routes across the province. In addition, over 5,000 miles of market roads act as feeders to the numerous towns and villages.

In the past two decades air transport has attained great importance. Winnipeg is a centre for the Trans-Canada Airways, as well as for Canadian Pacific Air Lines and other smaller concerns which operate into the north. The numerous rivers and lakes provide landing grounds for the country in the Shield, the aircraft operating on floats in summer and on skis in winter. Air transportation reduces to a matter of hours trips which would otherwise take an equal number of weeks. Apart from the few weeks of the year at freeze-up and break-up, what would otherwise be isolated communities are kept in contact with the outside world through air services.

THE PEOPLE

The population of Manitoba in 1946 was just under 720,000. In the past fifteen years the population has grown very slightly.



About three people in seven in the province live in urban communities and the remainder in rural ones. The population is of diverse racial origin. There are a few of the old settlers born at Red River before Manitoba entered Confederation and their descendants; this group could be divided into its French and its English components. Then there are those who have come from other Canadian provinces, notably from Ontario, Quebec and the Maritimes, who still comprise a very large part of the population. Another group came from the British Isles and while statistically it can be shown that the largest single group came from England, such functions as the St. Andrew's and Burns' Night dinners, to say nothing of the

The broad sweep of the Minnedosa Valley seen from the vantage point of the ridge.



accent of many public servants, betray a North British origin. Another large group came from the United States.

The original French settlers have been reinforced by migration from Quebec. East of the Red River, from St. Boniface to the International Boundary, in the south central part around Somerset, St. Claude and Notre Dame de Lourdes, as well as in smaller communities such as St. Lazare in the west, and St. Laurent on Lake Manitoba, French is the dominant racial stock.

European groups entered the province at an early date. The Icelanders settled between Lake Winnipeg and Lake Manitoba, the main centre being Gimli. This site was selected not so much for the fertility of the soil as for its proximity to Lake Winnipeg, where the newcomers could fish as well as farm in order to make a living. At about the same time, Mennonite settlers came to the southern portion of the province, some taking land in the East Reserve centring about Steinbach which, incidentally, is the only town of any size in the province that is not yet served by a railway. Others went to the West Reserve extending from the Red River as far west as Morden. These people were excellent farmers. They were the first to prove that settlements could prosper on

the open prairie, away from the woodlands of the river valleys. In more recent times they are illustrating how the principle of intensive agriculture may be applied in Manitoba. Rhineland Municipality, predominantly Mennonite, has the densest rural population in the province. In communities such as those tributary to Altona and Gretna there are a great many small holdings, in sharp contrast to the farms in the rest of the province, which are large and increasing in size. Another characteristic of the Mennonite settlements is the village community. Many of these have persisted down to the present time. Their names betray the origin of their people: Gnadenthal, Hochfeld, Blumenfeld, and many others. These communities are quite unlike the isolated farmsteads which are so typical of much of prairie settlement. Various other European groups have taken up lands in the southeast and in the northwest of the province. The largest of these groups are the Ukrainian, Polish and German. The place-names in several municipalities indicate the racial origin of the people, such as Ukraina, Ruthenia, Tolstoi, Hnausa and Zbaraz.

The urban population is concentrated in the area of Winnipeg and its suburbs, and St. Boniface. Outside of this region there is



Breakwater and harbour at Gimli. Fish packing equipment in foreground.



The Legislative Building, Winnipeg.

only one city, namely Brandon, with more than 10,000 population. This concentration of a large proportion of the population of the entire province in one relatively small urban area is the basis of many of the political and economic problems which the province has to face.

With few exceptions, Manitoba's centres of population are a product of the transportation system. Along each line of railway a siding has been put in every six to eight miles, elevators erected, and a small community has grown up as a distributing centre. Tall, narrow, grain elevators visible for miles, become the characteristic landmarks of the West, described by an author in this *Journal* as the "Castles of the New World".*

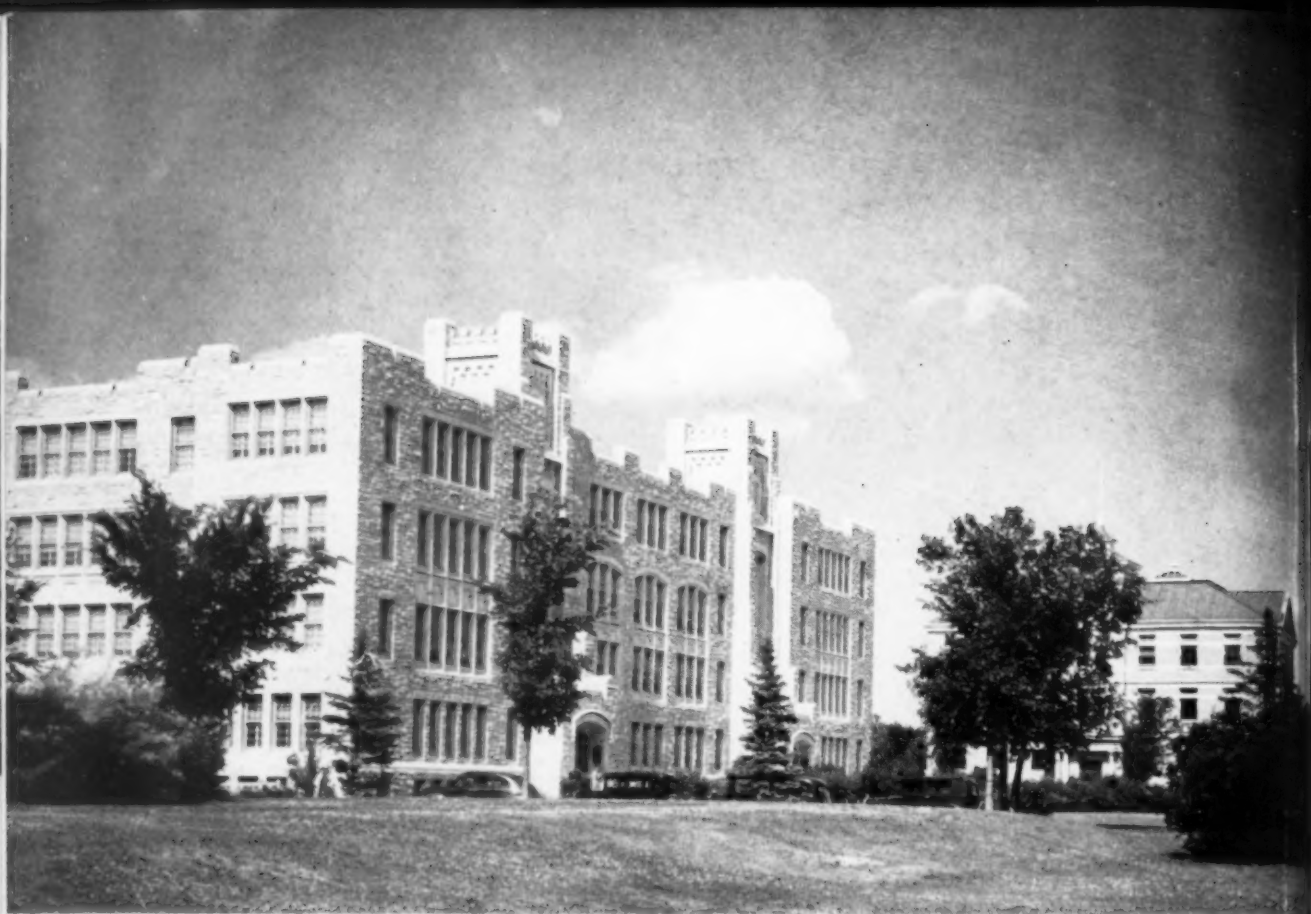
The educational system of the province was originally modelled on that of Ontario. In 1890 the legislature set up a uniform system of public schools and precipitated the "Manitoba School Question". After a long struggle the provincial statute was upheld,

and the non-denominational school system prevailed. In addition to the public schools there are several private schools, most of which operate under church auspices. The University of Manitoba was established in 1877 as an examining and degree conferring body, the instruction being given by the denominational colleges. In 1904 the University itself began to offer courses, which were soon extended to include all subjects leading to degrees in Arts and Science. Other faculties followed until a full university program was offered. The colleges, of which there are now five—St. Boniface, St. John's, United, St. Paul's, and Brandon—have continued as separate corporations, carrying on their own instruction, and they are affiliated with the provincial University which grants all degrees except those in Theology.

MUNICIPALITIES

Winnipeg is the economic as well as the political capital of the province. It is the

*Walter B. Herbert, *Canadian Geographical Journal*, May 1933



The Science Building of the University of Manitoba at Winnipeg.

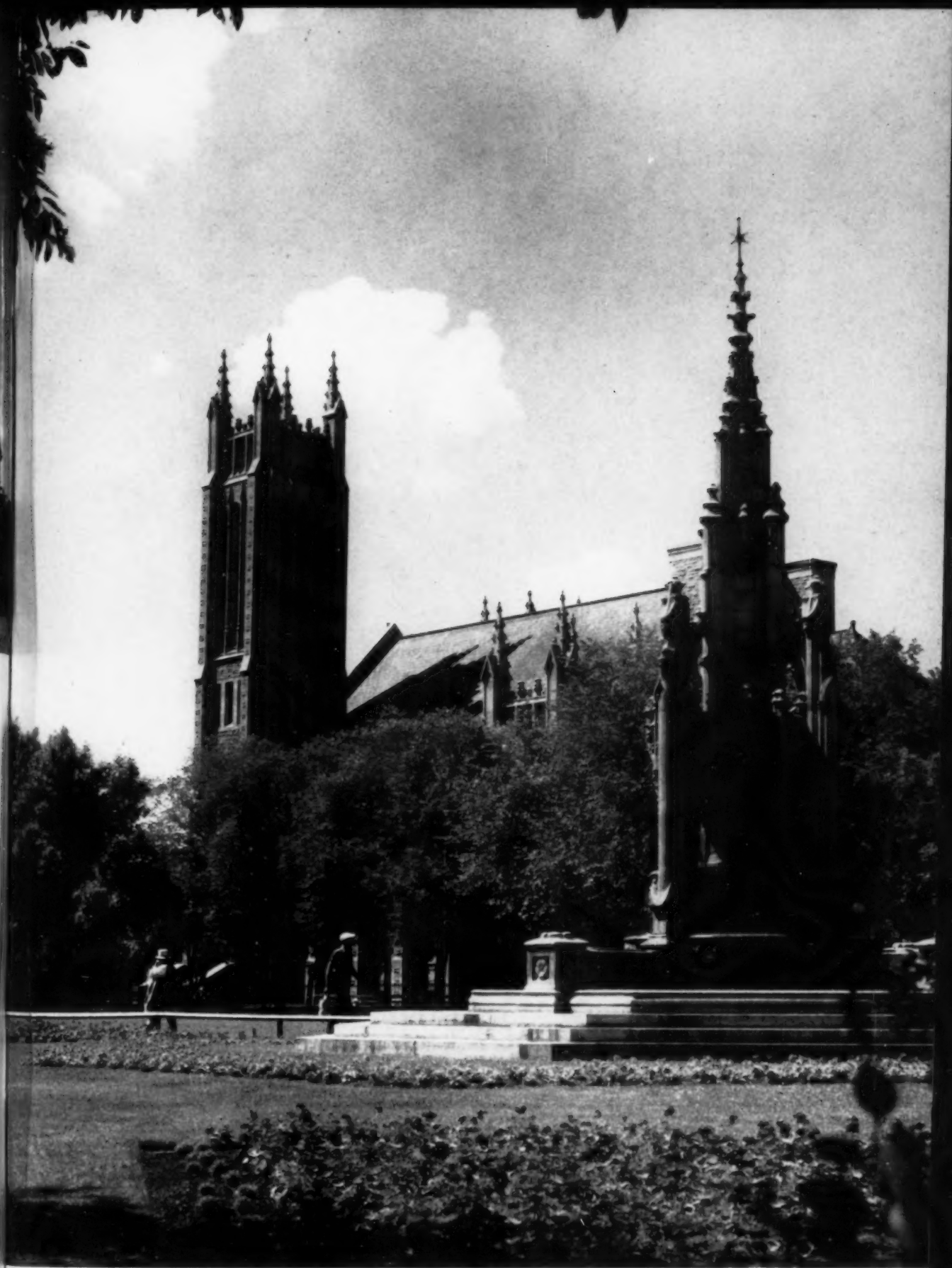
gateway to the West. Western head offices of many large corporations, banks, manufacturing and distributing companies are located here. The origin of much of Winnipeg's business can be traced far beyond the borders of Manitoba into the other western provinces. Winnipeg originally developed as a transportation centre. Both transcontinental railways have large yards and shops located

in the area. It is one of the boasts of Winnipeg that it has more railway tracks than any other privately-owned yard.

Wide streets are featured, and the corner of Portage and Main is reputed to be the windiest corner on the North-American continent, outside of Chicago. Winnipeg is also known for its tree-planted boulevards. Many years ago a far-seeing Parks Commission decided very wisely that since the elms did so well, they should be planted on the boulevards throughout the city. Untiring adherence to this policy has given real distinction to many streets that would otherwise have appeared very commonplace indeed. The provision of service lanes has taken private roadways to garages, poles for electrical and telephone services, and a goodly portion of commercial traffic, to say nothing of garbage



The Provincial Normal School at Tuxedo, the first institution of its kind in Canada to be operated on a residential basis.



Knox Church, the first metropolitan Presbyterian church in Winnipeg, from Central Park. On the right is the Waddell fountain.



collection, off the streets in down-town, as well as in residential areas.

The most famous of Winnipeg's business institutions is undoubtedly the Grain Exchange which, prior to the restrictions on the trade necessitated by wartime conditions, rivalled any other grain market in the world. Among the more attractive of the public buildings is the Legislative Building, which stands as a monument to the faith of its planners in the future of the province. It is generally considered one of the finest buildings of its type in the country. The numerous stately churches throughout the city indicate the extent of the church-going habits of the community.

The naturally flat and almost treeless aspect of the city has led to a determined effort to provide public parks of an attractive character. At Kildonan and Assiniboine, on the northern and southern edges of the city respectively, the objective has been achieved to a very pleasing degree. Few cities display such a sharp contrast in their summer and winter appearance as does Winnipeg. Since it is almost without evergreens to add colour to the snow-covered ground during its severe winter, for some months the city has great difficulty in appearing other than bleak. Then spring comes suddenly. When the grass turns green and the elms, the hedges, the shrubs and the large quantities of flowers which adorn almost every garden, come out, the city is transformed in an unbelievably short period

THE CITY OF WINNIPEG:

Left, top to bottom:—

View of the city from The Forks.

Portage Avenue, looking west from Main Street.

Looking north on Memorial Boulevard.

Right, top to bottom:—

Wellington Crescent.

The Pavilion, Assiniboine Park.

Provencher Bridge across the Red River.

Dominion Public Building in background.





Lower Fort Garry, now used as a country club.

of time. The bleakness and the cold have gone, and the warmth of the people is reflected in the luxuriant growth which surrounds the homes of rich and poor alike.

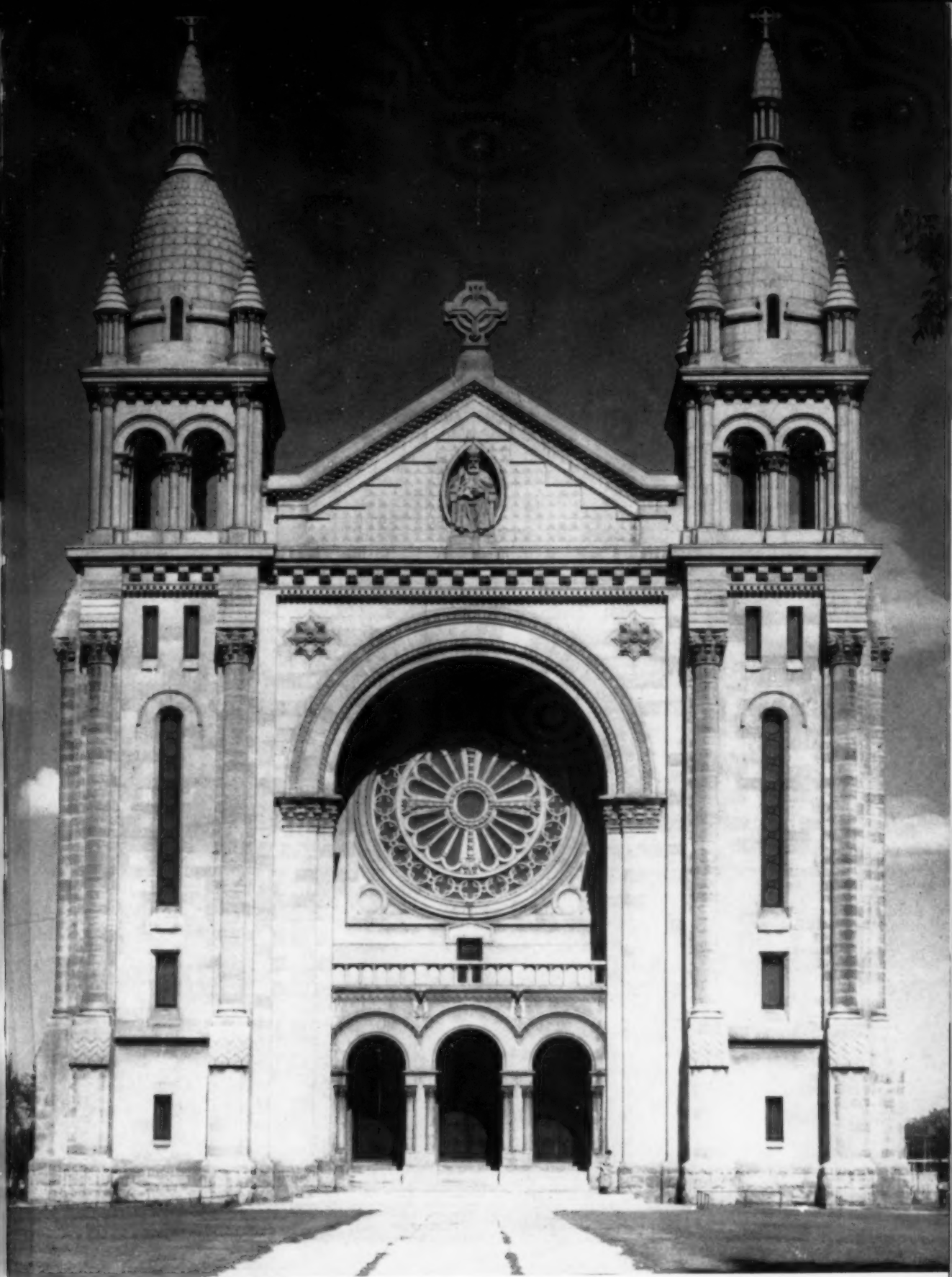
St. Boniface, the second city of the province, lies directly across the Red River from Winnipeg. Here is the centre of the French community, with its cathedral, its college and its up-to-date secondary schools. St. Boniface is not a self-contained city. Each day thousands of its citizens cross the river to work in Winnipeg in stores, banks, and manufacturing establishments. On the other hand, St. Boniface is an industrial city in its own right. It has the largest packing plants in Western Canada, and, as St. Boniface people are crossing the Red to their work in Winnipeg, they meet an equal number who are going to work on the east bank.

Brandon is the marketing and distributing centre of the western part of the province. The city is well located along the southern edge of the deep valley of the Assiniboine, giving it an attractive appearance as one approaches on No. 1 Highway from the north. Brandon is a divisional point on the C.P.R., has numerous small industries, good shopping centres, and one of the largest seed companies in the country. Of all the towns and cities of Manitoba, Brandon most closely

resembles the towns of Ontario, whence so many of its people or their parents came.

Portage la Prairie is the distributing centre for the central part of the province. Through it pass the main railway lines before they separate to serve the northern and southern sections of the prairies respectively. The Portage Plains which lie about the town are among the finest wheat lands of the province, and although the city has a few minor industries, it is in every sense a market town.

Flin Flon represents the mining community. Ninety-two miles northwest of The Pas, with only very scattered and very small settlements between, Flin Flon lies cooped up in the Shield. The town is literally spread over the rocks. Here and there, where there are relatively level areas, the streets follow a pattern, and the houses have some grounds around them. Otherwise, they cling precariously to the sides of the hills, and one finds a hundred steps on one of the main cross-streets of the town. The prohibitive cost of putting in a water and sewage system in the solid rock has challenged the ingenuity of the inhabitants of Flin Flon. They have the unique system of pipes above ground, though the temperature in January frequently goes down to 40° below zero, and the system works. The town lies in the shadow



West façade, St. Boniface Cathedral, mother church building of the Roman Catholic archdiocese of St. Boniface.



Left:
the
Sask

of the tremendous stacks of the Hudson Bay Mining and Smelting Company. The first thing one sees on approaching by train is the smoke in the air, then the great chimneys and, as the railway winds around the hill to gain the proper elevation, the town itself finally comes into view. Flin Flon has many of the characteristics of the mining town. There is work for everyone, and wages are good; there is an air of cheerfulness as well as a free and easy atmosphere about the town. It is here one learns what confidence in the future of the north really means, as one talks to the people, every one of whom is either a prospector or a speculator, or wishes he were.

As Flin Flon typifies the mining North, so does The Pas represent lumbering and the

fur-trade—the old North if you will. Here trappers and lumbermen outfit themselves and find transportation to their lines spread over the northern lands. Dauphin is the distributing centre for that tract of fertile country which lies between the Riding Mountains and the Duck Mountain Forest Reserve. It is an illustration of the building of the Canadian nation, in that people of diverse racial origin have welded themselves into a community of which they are all very justly proud. From the signs on the store fronts, to the several types of architecture in which the churches are built, one is constantly reminded of the heritage of the peoples who make up this flourishing community. In various enterprises, such as the community centre, the hospital, the school

Section of Main Street, Dauphin

Saskatchewan Avenue, Dauphin



Left:—The Pas, showing
the bridge across the
Saskatchewan River.

Right:—Tenth Street,
Brandon



system, all elements work together for the common good.

Market towns are dotted throughout the province. Many of these have, in addition, manufacturing industries, both small and large. For example: at Neepawa there is the largest salt works in Western Canada, and at Selkirk is the province's only steel-rolling mill. At Sifton, north of Dauphin, and at Lockport on the lower Red River, there are woollen mills. Each of the towns has its own distinguishing feature. At Gimli, with its pier and its fishing boats, agriculture and fishing supplement each other to provide a livelihood for its people. At towns which have evolved from a commercial enterprise, such as Pine Falls, Great Falls, or Pointe du Bois, along the Winnipeg River, communities thrive

in the shadow of great industrial plants. At Altona, eight miles from the American border, one sees the exemplification of the co-operative movement. Not only is there the usual co-operative store, oil company, and elevator, but also a co-operative industry engaged in extracting vegetable oil from sunflower seeds, the product of which is shipped in tank cars mostly for the United States market. In Altona, as in Steinbach in the Eastern Mennonite Reserve, the predominance of green and white paint gives a distinctive appearance to the town. Minnedosa, Virden and Souris are charmingly situated on the edge of the deep valleys of the Minnedosa, Assiniboine and Souris Rivers, respectively. Here, as in so many other parts of the province, the lie

n Avenue la Prairie



View of the mining town of Flin Flon





Great herds of buffalo roamed the plains and afforded food and clothing to the early settlers on the Red River. Today buffalo are to be seen in Riding Mountain Park.

is given to the tradition of the flat prairie.

Swan River is a thriving community serving the fertile Valley of the same name, which lies between the Porcupine and the Duck Mountain Forest Reserves. Although the valley is not large, its lands are rich and one is constantly in sight of the high hills to the north and south.

Pilot Mound, in the southern part of the province, takes its name from a most curious and interesting natural formation two miles north of the town. Here from the relatively flat plain arises a mound 100 to 150 feet high, which is a landmark for miles around. Crystal City, a few miles away, in rich farming country, indicates in its name the optimism of its founders.

Manitoba could be described as Canada's "Representative Province", because it approximates an average for the whole country. It is neither the largest nor the smallest, the richest nor the poorest, the warmest

nor the coldest, the oldest nor the newest the most easterly nor the most westerly. It stands in the centre of the country, a fair cross-section of the people and of their economic and social life. Here provincial and national interests and aspirations coincide as completely as anywhere in Canada.

* * *

Articles about Manitoba which have appeared in the *Canadian Geographical Journal* include:-

Port Churchill by Denzil G. Ridout, August 1931; Winnipeg, the Prairie Capital by T. B. Robertson, September 1933; Buffalo Days on Red River by J. P. Turner, February 1934; Lake Winnipeg by H. C. Knox, May 1936; Prairie Farm Rehabilitation by E. S. Archibald, October 1940; Our Historic Northern Route by Eva Beckett, March 1941; Old Fort Garry by J. L. Morris, January 1942; Mapping Western Canada—the Red River Valley by Trevor Lloyd, May 1943; Fur Rehabilitation in Northern Manitoba by D. M. Stephens, January 1945; The Discovery of Manitoba by L. J. Burpee, October 1945; North on the Hudson Bay Railway by Lynn Harrington, August 1947; Flight of the Thunder Bird by Frank H. Ellis, July 1947.

EDITOR'S NOTE-BOOK

R. O. MacFarlane, who contributes the informative article on Manitoba to this issue, was born at Almonte, Ontario, where he received his early schooling. He took his B.A. and M.A. at Queen's and pursued his academic career by taking his A.M. and Ph.D. at Harvard. Dr. MacFarlane followed his vocation of teaching at Simmons College, Boston, and later at the University of Manitoba. During the late war Dr. MacFarlane served in the Canadian Intelligence Corps, retiring with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. After the war Dr. MacFarlane joined the Manitoba Department of Education, where he now holds the appointment of deputy minister.

* * *

Douglas H. Fullerton specializes in analyses of Canada's international trade statistics. After graduating from McGill University with the degree of Master of Commerce he worked in the Research Department of the Foreign Exchange Control Board. Four years' war service in the army intervened and on discharge Mr. Fullerton joined the Central Research and Development Staff of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

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AMONGST THE NEW BOOKS

Where the High Winds Blow

by BRUCE D. CAMPBELL

(Charles Scribner's Sons—S. J. R. Saunders, Toronto, 83.50)

THIS is a first-hand account of life in the eastern Canadian sub-Arctic, written largely from memory. For five years, the author was an employé of the Hudson's Bay Company, going to his first post, Cape Wolstenholme, in 1934 when he and the reviewer were shipmates on R.M.S. *Nascopie*. He stayed in the North till 1940 and then joined the R.C.A.F. and had the misfortune to be shot down in '41 to spend nearly four years as a prisoner of war in Stalag Luft III and other camps.

During this time he gave about seventy-five lectures on the Canadian North and the subject proved so interesting to his fellow prisoners that they persuaded him to record his experiences in book form. It was not till he returned to Canada that he had a chance to look at his notes and correct any little errors that might have crept in.

Even with the advantage of these notes at hand, a few slips have passed unheeded by the author, the editor and the proof-reader. One is that beloved and romantic misquotation which irritates the officers of the Company so much and so often: "The Governor and Company of Adventurers of English Gentlemen Trading into Hudson's Bay". Nearly everybody insists on working the word "gentlemen" in somewhere, perhaps confusing the phrase with Kipling's memorable line about "the souls of the gentlemen adventurers". The correct wording is: "The Governor and Company of Adventurers of England Trading into Hudson's Bay".

Mr. Campbell is most fortunate in his artist, Philip Bear, a fellow prisoner who had spent two summers aboard a whaler in northern waters and had watched the Eskimo with an observant eye and a retentive memory. His sketches are not only skilful but are good interpretation. His people look like Eskimos, and they "feel" like them too. The delightful igloo interior on Page 78, with the naked children scampering about on the sleeping bench, pictures most sympathetically the home life of these friendly, cheerful, and delightful people. One unfortunate slip appears on Page 123 in the picture showing a man using a leister through a hole in the ice, where it is obvious that this type of spear has not been fully understood.

Mr. Campbell's personal observations are accurate and detailed. He remembers the people and their country well, and obviously enjoyed both of them to the full. It is when he ventures on to the somewhat treacherous bogs of anthropological hypothesis that he comes to grief as, for example, in Chapter 10. His account of the origin and dispersal of the Eskimo groups is so over-simplified as to be misleading. He errs, too, in attributing to the Eskimos a belief in "The Happy Hunting Ground", a fallacious notion which many white men hold. Neither the Indians nor the Eskimos had any such belief. The origin of this idea appears to be traceable to the play *Metamora*, first performed on the 15th of December, 1829, and the phrase to Washington Irving in his *Astoria* (1836).

It's a good book, none the less. In it you will find all the traditional elements which go to make up the romantic life of the north: dog driving, seal hunting, trading, travelling, building the snow house, walrus, snow blindness, the Eskimo people, men, women, and the charming young girls; kayaks, bear cubs, the northern lights; births, marriages, deaths, and the spring love making; the language, the clothes, the caribou, white fox, ice and snow, gale and blizzard, the flowers, ponds and streams of summer, the incredible mosquitoes, the Mounties, all combine in a rich and fascinating mosaic, charming and memorable.

DOUGLAS LEECHMAN

Geomorphology by C. A. COTTON

(John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, \$6.00)

An introduction to the study of landforms by the Professor of Geology, Victoria University College, Wellington, New Zealand.

This is a new revised edition of a very excellent work on a subject that was formerly termed physiography by many. The newer name, geomorphology, is a much better one for it, however, for it concerns the study and classification of the surface forms of the earth, a very important phase of the science of geology. The book is well arranged and concise and serves as a very useful text for an elementary course in the subject. The material, moreover, is presented in such a readable manner that it makes an appeal not only to the geologist and geographer but also to everyone who loves nature and is interested in knowing why landscapes are like what they are.

It is this stress on explaining the origin of the various land forms that gives the volume its chief interest. It describes the forces at work on the surface of the earth and the results that they accomplish. If these processes are continued long enough they must finally produce an end result and a cycle then becomes completed. When, however, movements of the earth's crust take place before this end phase has been reached a new cycle is initiated before the former one has reached its old age stage. Often two or more cycles of erosion can be recognized in the surface forms and contours of the same region and the working out of the succession of events from these facts becomes a most interesting problem. There is the cycle of change that take place in a normal pluvial climate, the cycle in semi-arid and arid regions, the cycle in a country where underground drainage predominates as commonly happens where limestone beds underlie the surface, the cycle in a region overridden by ice, and the cycle that coasts pass through as the result of the erosive action of the sea. The volume will stimulate even the amateur geographer to fit any landscape he may see or know into its proper place in a slowly progressing succession of events and interpret what has gone on before.

The book is well illustrated with photographs and diagrams, most of the examples being taken from New Zealand. Since, however, that country has such a variety of land forms it offers a wealth of material for such a purpose.

F.J.A.

Birds of the Philippines

by JEAN DELCOUR and ERNST MAYR

(The Macmillan Company, Toronto, \$4.25)

THIS is another of the series of books on the Pacific World published under the auspices of the American Committee for International Wild Life Protection, other volumes of which have been noticed in this Journal from time to time. Like its predecessors, this book treats its subject in the comprehensive and scholarly manner that can be expected from the authors, who are internationally known as specialists in this subject. Illustrated with line cuts and with an index and glossary. P.E.P.

XII

Grierson on Documentary

by FORSYTH HARDY

(Collins, Toronto)

MR. JOHN GRIERSON has always admitted that in film making he prefers to record the living scene and the living story as opposed to acted scenes against artificial backgrounds. Why? Because by this mobility the motion picture encounters a more interesting and enduring fund of material. John Grierson has been justified in this faith, and, as a result, has gained a favourable international reputation.

Long before he came to Ottawa to vitalize the Canadian National Film Board, he made moving pictures in the United Kingdom and then produced not only one of the very first documentary films, but one of the best to date. He called it "Drifters," and the enthralling story of the North Sea herring catch came richly to life under his direction. He has directed nearly 1,000 films since then, for, convinced that he was right, Grierson "sold" his new and revolutionary methods everywhere he found an audience.

He held and still holds two beliefs: (1) That the native actor and the native scene are the best material for screen presentations of the modern world. "They give it power of interpretation over more complex and astonishing happenings in the real world than the studio mind can conjure up or the studio mechanician recreate." (2) That stories taken from the real world can be finer in a psychological sense than fiction. He is ready to risk the original or native actor against the "lily-fingered interpretation of the metropolitan actor." His main interest has always been social rather than aesthetic.

He says frankly that the studio production and the documentary are as far apart as the poles in approach and methods, the essence of the documentary being that it must master its material on the spot and reveal the reality of its subject.

Mr. Grierson says he likes the moving picture when it measures up—even when it half measures up—to what adult minds expect from it. He agrees with St. John Ervine that it has been and remains distressingly shallow; mere skill of presentation (though Hollywood certainly has that) is not enough. He blames shallow-minded critics for some of the screen's worst shortcomings, and hints they are influenced by the flattering hospitality of the trade. He is pleased when Hollywood turns out something genuine and worthy like "The Good Earth" and he thinks that British films, generally, are no match for the American output.

These and other observations are in the selections from Mr. Grierson's writings, chosen by Mr. Forsyth Hardy to complete his able and revealing book.

To the many who know John Grierson, this volume will be very welcome indeed, for it reveals him not only keenly and sensibly human, but in the exciting world of the cinema, realistic and far-seeing, and far more well-informed than was generally realized. F.H.W.

The Wind That Shakes The Barley

by JAMES BARKE

(Collins, Toronto, \$3.00)

BURNS clubs and Burns addicts in this and other countries will have something new to digest along with their haggis and brose in this novel written around the life of their favourite poet. This book, the first of a trilogy intended to cover his whole life, takes the Bard of Scotland and his family to his 25th year, describing the formative period of his youth and the first shoots and stems of the rich flowering of his verse. Each reader will have his own opinion as to the author's success in portraying the development of Burns' genius and character. To your reviewer's mind, he has not been too successful and neither the central nor satellite figures of the story seem to have life or volition of their own. The author tells us they are good or bad, gay or dour, but we must take his word for it—his characters do not speak for themselves. It seems probable that our author has been too prone to accept, from the immense literature on his subject, other people's evaluation of his characters rather than developing them himself for the purpose of his story. The background of poverty, a lean and chilly soul, grasping landlords and a narrow and domineering clergy seems real and authentic and one can be sure that every reference has been verified and that the story follows closely the poet's life.

The dialogue is, for the most part, lowland Scots with occasional lapses into the stilted literary English of the period. The untutored Saxon will need to make frequent excursions to the glossary even to follow the narrative, all of which, of course, in no way detracts from the merits of the book for the expatriate Scot or the Burns enthusiast.

P.E.P.

* * *

This is Ontario

by KATHERINE HALE

(Ryerson Press, Toronto, \$2.50)

The title is self-explanatory, but hardly prepares one for the charm and interest that inform every chapter of this fine example of regional geography. Katherine Hale knows her native province and tells the story in a series of motor and boat trips taken in leisurely fashion north, south, east and west. There are the most delightful glimpses of historic lore, the origins of towns and villages, and the romantic careers of some of the stalwart pioneers whose almost feudal estates did for Upper Canada what the seigneurs did for Quebec.

Nor is new Ontario with its vast resources and great mining centres forgotten. Our author has the happy faculty of eliciting information from mine managers and industrial leaders as skilfully as from local historians and government records. This is a holiday book *par excellence*, useful to take with you on tour. But for those who must stay at home there is ample enjoyment in every page of this sparkling and informative itinerary. Photographs, end-paper maps and an index of place-names are helpful guides.

F. E. FORSEY



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